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# Aufsätze, Vorträge und Reden

von

DR. A. JACOBI

FÜR SEINE TOCHTER ZU IHREM SECHSZEHNTEM GEBURTSTAGE  
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## THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN NURSING.

ADDRESS DELIVERED AT THE FIRST COMMENCEMENT  
OF THE MOUNT SINAI TRAINING SCHOOL  
FOR NURSES, MAY 12TH, 1883.

NURSING is as old as the human species. Even among animals, such as they are at present, we find occasional sympathy with fellow-suffering, and meet with efforts for the purpose of relief. We cannot imagine that human beings, in ever so remote prehistoric times, should have lived together, or near each other, without mutual attempts at relief when suffering or sick. But this is presumption only, not history. No book, no tradition refers to facts in regard to the subject until the times of ancient Hellas and its successor in civilization, ancient Rome. Antiquity yields but few proofs of systematic nursing. It is true, hospitality was the pre-eminent virtue of the Greek. The stranger was always welcome ; if he was sick, he was twice so. In all Hellas poor sick citizens found ready admission to, and nursing in, the houses of the rich. It may be that the facility of finding private relief on the part of the sick was one of the causes why no systematic and collective efforts for the purpose of attending and nursing the sick were ever made to any extent. That such was the case

there can be little doubt; for the temples of Æsculapius and the adjoining residences of the physicians were probably not hospitals, but temporary domiciles for those who congregated in large numbers around the homes of the gods. Of the same nature was the edifice erected by Antoninus Pius near the temple of the Epidaurian Æsculapius. In Italy, also, the temple of Æsculapius, on the island in the Tiber between Rome and the outlet of the river, was never of much importance as a hospital or sanitarium. The only real hospitals at all comparable with institutions such as we have, existed in favor of human property and for the benefit of soldiers. According to the testimony of Columella, Seneca, and Celsus, the Romans had hospitals for slaves, warriors, and gladiators. In Greece, also, as early as the period of Solon, those injured on the battlefield were attended and nursed at the expense of the community. Of the great Cæsar it is well known that he had a regular medical service in his armies.

There is a word in the ancient Greek which has given rise to the belief that Hellas may have had hospitals. But, as no facts and reports sustain that supposition, it is probable that *ιατρείον* meant a medical office, a polyclinic perhaps, but not a hospital. Real hospitals were not built by either Greek, Roman, or Hebrew. The commonwealth of the latter was hierarchic and intolerant. The stranger—though he who was permitted to live in Judæa was to be treated like a member of the community—was to be exterminated, and must not be spared. Thus, while there are no proofs of the existence of





ments were not exactly hospitals, but stopping places and dormitories for pilgrims on their way to Rome. To what extent such institutions were necessities is best proved by the order of the so-called "Bridgemakers" (*Hospitaliers Pontifes*), whose original vocation it was to protect pilgrims from the robberies and rapacity of the ferrymen on the large rivers. They existed a long time, became rich and degenerated, and were finally dissolved in 1672 by Louis XIV.

The hierarchic character of the institutions calculated to benefit the poor remained intact until the period of the Crusade wars. At that time Italian and German merchants initiated the great combinations of the several orders of the Hospital Brothers.

Their efforts were not isolated or altogether premature. For there existed a humanistic movement among the better classes of the Occident, on a Christian basis, it is true, but spontaneous. Particularly in the cities societies were formed for the purpose of nursing the sick and aiding the forlorn. Guy of Montpellier, France, established a hospital in that city, *of larger size*, while up to that time all the institutions of a similar character were small and unavailing, and located outside the walls. The new hospital in Montpellier, and seven more French houses, and two under the same direction in Rome, are first mentioned in a bull of Pope Innocent III. in the year 1198. The secular character of the institutions was at that time fully recognized. In connecting four clergymen with them he commanded that they were to attend to spiritual duties only



clusively clerical. As late as in the beginning of the eighteenth century it had great possessions in Europe and the West Indies.

The order of St. Elizabeth was founded in 1225 by Elizabeth, daughter of Andrew II. of Hungary, and wife of Landgrave Ludwig of Thuringia. Women need not complain that domestic virtues do not warm more than their own home, and do not immortally challenge the admiration of posterity. Her name will never die, when many a great warrior's memory will be buried out of sight. She founded two hospitals in Eisenach, and another in Marburg, into which the twenty-two-year-old widow retired. The rule was to nurse the female sick only. But when Francis Joseph and Windischgrätz (*par nobile fratrum*) let loose their Croats over unhappy Vienna in our own times in 1848, the Sisters of St. Elizabeth were in the front ranks, bringing aid and comfort.

In 1171 the orders of St. Protais and St. Gervais were founded in France; about the same time the houses in Roncesvalles and Burgos. In 1409 José Gilaberto established an order in Valencia for the special purpose of nursing the lunatic.

Those I have mentioned, with several others, were orders founded by the Church, or whose supervision soon became clerical. Those which, though all of them were anxious to submit to the Church for spiritual reasons, succeeded in retaining their autonomy must be credited with more real success in accomplishing their ends. Among the first we have any information of is the order of St. Catherine. Its members nursed poor and strange women



The Confraternita della Perseveranza was established in Rome, in 1663, for the purpose of caring for the strangers in the taverns.

The order of the Sisters of Mercy was founded in 1617 by Vincent de Paul, a preacher. In a sermon he placed before his congregation the case of a poor and sick family, urging their co-operation and sympathy. Enthusiasm and much zeal were aroused, and a noble and gifted woman, Louise de Marillac, the wife of Legras, the secretary of Mary de Médicis, enlisted herself at once in the service of that family and of many equally indigent. She and her friends worked both in private residences and in hospitals, and were soon recognized as an order. As early as 1636 a house was founded for the care and education of children and women, a foundling hospital was established, and a home for the alienated in 1645. Her order owned, after a single century, two hundred and ninety stations and had fifteen hundred members, who entered between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four, bound themselves for life to the order and the Church, and worked in hospitals and private residences, in the interest of both women and men, in rescuing fallen girls and educating the young. In Rome, mainly in this century, they assisted those taken with infectious and acute diseases who could not be admitted to the public hospitals, and everywhere they attended the chronic cases of sickness of all denominations. Their foothold in Germany dates from this century only. Their greatest adversity was the all-purifying thunderstorm, the French Revolution. Many emi-









the ways and words of the mediæval rules of Catholic orders, proved one truth, and I emphasize that because here is the great difference between church nursing and modern nursing. "Clerical care of the sick is destined, under the rules, to serve the Church, whatever that may mean, while serving the sick; the main duties and aims in view are ecclesiastical, and not humane, and, instead of a nurse solely given to the performance of her duties, you deal with ecclesiastical officers" (Virchow). And the necessity is clear that whatever organization is deemed advisable in the interest of the sick, that organization ought to be in our times *unecclesiastical* and *unsectarian*. I have alluded to the fact that whatever medical knowledge existed in the masses centuries ago did so through the medium of the clergy. That knowledge was but trifling, for the ancient medicine of the Greeks and the more recent labors of the Arabs were sealed books at that time. But then the clergyman was the doctor. Instead of being so at present, we are daily met with the fact that the exact tendency of modern medicine is an unknown territory to the clergy, and that among them the upholders of all sorts of doubtful practices find their most sincere supporters. Medicine is to them a matter of faith, not science. It is not necessary to refer to that Brooklyn impostor whose criminal career has been detailed but lately in the secular press. For no church and no denomination must be held responsible for his methods of fleecing the ignorant and credulous. But the instances where actual clergymen assume responsibilities beyond their clerical powers and



Church. The omnivorous taste and good digestion of the Church have become proverbial.

The majority of the clerical associations having failed, the seventeenth, and still more the eighteenth, centuries were far behind former periods in regard to systematic nursing. It has taken a long time between the church institutions, which no longer came up to the intentions of their founders, and the spontaneous efforts of free men and women who felt the necessity of appropriate efforts on a different basis. The history of this slow evolution is very interesting ; it is the co-ordinate of the history of a healthy and wholesome individualism in general, after long indifference and chaos.

Schools for training nurses were established in Germany fifty years ago ; in Berlin by Dieffenbach, Kluge, and Gedike, and in Göttingen by Ruhstaat. Books to serve the purpose of instructing nurses and the public in general have been written by numerous men and women, some of them, particularly in our days, by celebrities. Gedike himself published a work, fifty years ago, which is a very readable one even now. Passing by Nightingale, who has proved how to become immortal without enjoying high office, or playing on cannon, or tyrannizing nations, or being borne on a throne, let me allude to but a few illustrious names : Nothnagel, who wrote on the nursing of those sick with nerve diseases ; Billroth, who published a book on nursing in general ; Esmarch, who taught the first aid in emergencies ; and the greatest of the many great men of the century, Virchow, with his many contributions to the literature of the subject, and



women to any great extent. The entire liberty given them has proved already, will prove more in future, that neither law nor medicine is an appropriate vocation for any but an exceptional class of women, and that the opposition to women practitioners of law and medicine will come less from the professions than from the public. For the public will never admit that a person in the practice of a profession should not give his or her entire attention and strength to it, and the women of the country will never admit that the superintendence of a home and the proper raising of a family are not sufficient employments of all the time and all the powers of the most gifted woman. The amateurs are losing ground. Thus it is that the professions will never be overrun, and the fear of undue competition has long died out, even among the most chicken-hearted braves of the professions. But the question is not how many women will avail themselves of the opportunities granted, but whether they are to have those opportunities, and whether these are to be given the women of all walks of life, of all standards of intellect. And the question has generally been answered affirmatively, to such an extent that it is considered self-understood that, while the mediæval ages attempted to help them as much as possible, modern times prefer to give them the power to help themselves. In regard to nursing, attention was called early to the unmarried and poor among the women. The statistics of Berlin of the year 1872 proved that every third woman had to provide for herself. It was remarked with surprise that, of 407 such help-



baby, speaking of their long experience, sleeping ten hours, talking gossip all day long, and drinking eleven cups of coffee in the twenty-four hours. This is hardly an exaggeration, for the number of women who took up nursing as a business, driven to it by some natural disposition, gifted with some intellect, modest and willing to profit by superior knowledge and experience, interested in the welfare of their patients, and never stunted in their human feelings by the force of habit, was rather small. But I am glad to say I knew such, too. I gladly shook their hands when I happened to meet them on a common errand, gladly recognizing the diploma they carried in their brains and hearts. But these exceptions proved the rule, and the rule conveyed no blessing. It was, it is, a sad fact that nursing all over the world grew worse in just the same time when medical science grew more exact and medical practice more effective.

Relief in this city came none too soon. The president has detailed to you the history of the training schools of New York. Since their time the practice in hospitals and in private dwellings has changed wonderfully. After thirty years' work in the city, after twenty-five years' constant labor in public institutions, I ought to know the difference. And I do know and publicly proclaim that the results of the best of physicians have vastly improved since their cases have been in the hands of trained nurses. This is so in private dwellings; it is the same in hospitals. In the hospitals the difference can be measured on a large scale. In them the trained nurse has worked a vast improvement.





and practice of nursing and caring for the sick, performs its duties but half, and serves the public but incompletely. Every large hospital must be, and will be, a clinical school and a school for nurses. It will be acknowledged that, as the presence of a nurse in a sick-ward, who is sent there to learn, is considered unobjectionable, the presence of a few physicians observing a case, which cannot be injured by their so doing, is not only not injurious, but ought to be demanded by the public, who have a right to expect a physician in their own families who has seen and knows and understands what he is called in to treat. I do not see why hospital patients only should have the best that money and service can afford, and why the public at large should have to fall back in many cases on untried skill. Thus the people have a right to demand that every large hospital should have a clinical school and a training school for nurses. The public, who are willing to pay for it, may also demand that the expenses of the same, particularly the nurses' school, should be borne by the hospital. This demand, if considered theoretical only, must stand as long as a hospital is, or claims to be, a public institution. When the board of directors of any institution will recognize that they are not the administrators of the dollars of a small concern, but the benefactors of the public at large, they will also appreciate not only that a few disinterested ladies will open their pocketbooks and collect voluntary contributions, but that a generous public will pay more willingly and more largely.

The demand that a large hospital should be a



and practically, the art of relieving the sick, aiding their comfort, taking responsibilities which sometimes are as difficult as they are life-saving, and obeying orders with intelligence and understanding. That such persons are valuable additions to our hygienic facilities and sanitary progress everybody can conceive. That without them many a case would not recover, in spite of the most competent medical skill, all of you may have experienced. I, for one, know from personal experience that many a case can be, has been saved, first, by the medical orders; secondly, and often mostly, by the execution of orders, such an execution as is rendered possible by combined knowledge and skill only. If I say that we practitioners have commenced to feel safe in regard to many of our cases only since we could rely on the co-operation of a trained nurse, I express but a common observation. I trust that there are households within hearing which know how to appreciate the services rendered them by a trained nurse.

So much only in regard to individual cases. But the service to the public at large hitherto rendered, and constantly increasing, is of a different and still more important nature. Who is nowadays the teacher of the public at large in sanitary matters, in hygienic rules? The knowledge of the Church, when *it* nursed, was faith, and, let us add, in its best times, love. The knowledge of uneducated women was, and is, ignorance driven to actual or alleged work by starvation. The knowledge of a trained nurse is the result of a two years' study under competent teachers, and a constant practice.



I remember quite well the case of inflammatory delirium which would always be relieved by propping up the head ; how to treat intelligently an attack of fainting ; how to render cow's milk digestible by repeated boiling, or lime water, or table salt, or farinaceous admixtures ; how to feed in case of diarrhœa ; how to refuse food in case of vomiting ; how to apply and when to remove cold to the head ; how to ventilate a room without a draught ; and a thousand other things. She will also use her knowledge and influence in weaning the public of nostrums, concerning which hardly anything is known except what you have to pay for the promises of the label. She will break the public of the indiscriminate use of quinia, with its dangers possibly for life ; cure you of the tendency of making the diagnosis of malaria the scapegoat of every unfinished or impossible diagnosis ; she will teach you that the frequent and reckless domestic use of chlorate of potassium leads to many a case of ailment, to chronic poisoning, possibly in the shape of Bright's disease, or to acute poisoning with unavoidable death. These are but very few of the things she can do, and but a little of the knowledge she cannot but distribute. With the aid of the class of women who frequent our training schools, the public at large must and will gain in a short time. Let the number of the schools increase, and increase the number of pupils, and every one of them will be a teacher and an apostle of sound information on sanitary and hygienic subjects. And let nobody leave this place to-night without intending to aid an institution as helpful as this.



the city are willing and anxious to undertake the arduous task of founding and supporting training schools, in the face of all sorts of difficulties, proves also that the work is in accordance with the requirements of both woman's nature and humanity. There will be many trained nurses who will work for humanity's sake, as centuries ago they claimed to serve for God's sake. Many a woman who would have buried herself in a monastery centuries ago, driven from the face of the living earth by misunderstood and unsatisfied longing, I believe would nowadays become a nurse, knowing and enthusiastic.

Ladies of the graduating class : The remarks I was expected to make have extended into a lecture. You have been used to lectures, however ; if you had not enjoyed them and profited by them, you would not be here to-night, the most honored and most conspicuous of this assembly. Thus I thought I might be permitted to speak, instead of to you, of you and your chosen calling and its history. From nothing can any profession derive so much advantage as from the history of its development. It is certainly an interesting spectacle to see how your profession depended intimately on the changing conditions of thought and feeling among mankind. You are happy enough to live and work in a time when, while following individual tastes and having individual motives, your labors are given to the suffering for no outside reason, no church command, but from the free choice of free women in the interest of humanity. I had also to allude to several subjects which may to some appear a little





## 28 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN NURSING.

ladies to whose care and sacrifices and labors you owe the existence of the school which sends you forth as its first graduates, nor the great charitable institution which, after having given you your practical training, honors you to-night by the presence of many of its officers, and designates its president to deliver to you your diplomas.



universally admired and loved for his pleasing manner and thoroughly gracious bearing. The difficulty of presiding after such men was relieved by but one all-important circumstance, which was this—that they had raised the Society to a flourishing condition such as had never existed before.

Now, as concerns the presidency in this Academy of Medicine, I believe I am in nearly the same position. If I were more eloquent I should try to do justice to the president of so many years, in recalling his services in the interest of the literature of medicine, of the standing of the profession at large, and of the development of this Academy. To say that the medical world knows him well, that we, the profession of the city and the members of the Academy, are under a great and respectful obligation to him for his untiring care and energy, his enduring patience, his kindness and urbanity, and his uniform success in conducting the affairs of the Academy, is but an incompetent expression of my feelings. Personally, I add my extreme gratification at the fact that it was under his guidance and supervision that the Academy could overcome such dangers and strifes as I hope these walls will never behold again. As they, however, are things of the past, I hope I shall have nothing to do but to preside over harmonious scientific meetings only, such as were contemplated when the Academy was founded. It will be my ambition and pride to contribute to its success as much as I can, hoping at the same time that your expectations will not be measured by Dr. Barker's eulogistic remarks, which I should be glad to deserve. In regard to them I



of pecuniary compulsion to practise medicine, enjoying the leisure required for studies of their own. They are governed in part by rules prescribed by the Government, which pays for their services either rendered to a public institution or to pure science.

*Our Academy* is a democratic institution. It is not limited in numbers ; on the contrary, it is desirable that the many respectable physicians should gather round its flag. Like our political community, it looks for its development and success in the co-operation of the competent and cultured masses. Like the Union, it is a voluntary confederation of peers, who make their own laws, and obey them because they are of their own making. The members have the same interests, both scientific and professional. There are but very few of us who are not engaged in the practice of medicine. When the Academy was founded the members were, all of them, general practitioners : specialists there were but few. This has changed much ; both study and practice have tried to become more profound by circumscribing and limiting their aims. But all of us are active men, not tied down or given up to study only. Thus we perform less laboratory work than they do in Europe, and write fewer monographs on special subjects. But the number of facts closely observed at the sick-bed or in the examining room has increased from year to year. In spite of the circumstance that we are all busy men, the literature of medicine in New York and the United States is no longer mostly parasitical, as Oliver Wendell Holmes was justified in complaining during the ses-



of science and the profession are suffering. Instead of one or two, every section of this Academy ought to be flourishing. Let us hope they will. We have been told to-night that there was more than an abundance of papers offered. Our rooms they are welcome to. Though we have to think of some time increasing our facilities, we can still accommodate them, and others besides. Indeed, most of the medical societies of the city would do well to avail themselves of the home the medical profession of the city have found in this hall, and meet here.

The peculiar features of this Academy I have mentioned permit of varied results. The mixture of the best brains of the profession and the modest practitioner is capable of raising the standard of the average professional man far beyond the level of the European medical man, frequently in knowledge, always in industry and ambition and ethics, without interfering with the individual and original labor of the hardest workers and best thinkers. Have we been successful on this side of the Atlantic ?

They say we have no John Hunter. All Great Britain, in all its pride, has but one. No Bichat or Laennec. All the glory and elegance of France have but one. No Virchow. All the centuries of toiling and philosophical Germany have produced but one. What we do have, however, is a medical profession with unbiassed minds, clear insight, critical eyes, undaunted industry, and that republican courtesy which recognizes—*sum cuique*—the peculiar advantages and services everywhere, and the democratic tendency of appreciating and appropriat-





Stewart, John Watson, Robert Watts, Isaac Wood, James R. Wood. Many of these names are known wherever medicine is taught and practised ; some of them will never die. This Academy will always cherish the names of its members who contributed to the glory of universal medicine and the American country.

When I, and those as old as I, knew these men, most of them were in advanced years. At that time the proportion of white heads was very much larger than it is to-day. I venture to say that it was for the good of the Academy that that was so. Neither the political republic nor that of science can thrive without the co-operation of all. At that time the number of older and old men was such as to draw forth sometimes the remark of some class of young men that the Academy was the headquarters of old fogies, and for that reason might be avoided and shunned. Much has been changed in this respect. Curly heads and young faces are plentiful -a good sign indeed for the energy and activeness of the growing generation. Many white beards, however, and bald heads have commenced to stay away for years—a proof indeed of the increased claim on their time and strength, but we fear also, now and then, of listlessness and indifference.

This ought not to be so. Neither in politics nor in science does age extinguish citizenship with its rights and duties. Besides, I know that the best trained young minds are modest enough to admit that they are able and anxious to learn from those whose opportunities extend over a long number of



larger the number of our members, the more we represent the best minds and all ages in the profession, the more readily the public and its legislators will listen to us. When they know that our advice will be the digest of the best knowledge and the ripe wisdom of the profession, they will not wait until it is forced upon them. In matters of health the two large medical societies of the city ought to be, will be, the authorities. If that be so, it will no longer depend upon a number of ladies only to remove intolerable nuisances from the heart of the city. The simple appeal of the profession will become the protection of the public. The latter will soon learn that it can rely on your knowledge and public spirit, and, as it calls on the bar for legal advice, it will consult the medical profession for sanitary necessities. In this way it will happen that some time the president of the Board of Health will be nominated or appointed by the profession; that no Board of Education, no Board of Charities, will be complete without a prominent medical member; medical bills will pass the Legislature, when backed by the whole power of the profession, without either delay or mutilation; the supervising officers of factories, nurseries, streets, baths, gas houses will be physicians; aye, the most improbable thing will happen, which is this: that the public will acknowledge that the government of hospitals ought not to be without medical advisers in their boards. In order, however, to accomplish such results, we must unite our numbers, powers, and influence. The public and legislatures will respect and obey the regular medical profession more



tries. Their judgment was sound, their therapeutics—though often exuberant—safe. As the scientific language of most of them was the same—Latin—their spirit was not local nor national. The same class of men were found in Germany and the British possessions ; also in Holland and France. In the former we meet the names of Werlhoff, R. A. Vogel, Zimmermann, Lentin, Van Swieten, J. P. Frank. There was also Auenbrugger, who ought not to have been so readily forgotten. In Great Britain there were Mead, Huxham, Fothergill, Pringle, Heberden, Monroe, Home, Cullen ; there was that giant, John Hunter. In America we had Bard and Rush. In France, Levret. In Holland, at an early date, Boerhaave. The only fanatical theorist of all the English writers was John Brown ; the only obscurist, who ought to have had a place in Germany between 1800 and 1840, was Robert Jones with his “ Inquiry into the State of Medicine on the Principles of Inductive Philosophy ” (1782). When Broussais reigned supreme in France his doctrines were welcomed by a great many in England. But the Anglo-Saxon mind is not easily drawn away by theories, and there is after all more solid work in Broussais than wanton theory only. Thus the English literature of the early part of this century teems with good observations and monographs by many more than those I here mention—Travers, Williams, Crawford, Astley Cooper, Brodie, Bell, Abercrombie, Cheyne, Pitcairn, Bright, Hope, and Carswell.

Of French names I have mentioned but one.

The redemption of France, after a century of al-



tions of all others, and, it appears to me, will live for centuries. Maybe also that Pasteur will be recognized as a fixed star in the scientific sky, if he will succeed in divesting himself of the doubtful attributes of polemical tendencies.

After Bichat there are three French names connected with the history of medical sciences in all countries. Laennec's revolution of diagnosis by percussion and auscultation is not any the less important and precious because Auenbrugger had worked in the same field more than half a century previously, for no other result than complete oblivion. Magendie's experimental physiology and pharmacology have benefited all mankind. His is the introduction of alkaloids, such as quinine, veratrine, strychnine, piperine, morphine, emetine—his the successful admission of bromine and iodine into practical therapeutics. Finally, Broussais, by overthrowing ontologies--though he created one of his own--by localizing disease, by urging prevention and abortive treatment, by studying the anatomical lesions of pathological processes, has substituted a method of anatomical thought in diagnosis for the merely clinical and empirical observation of the sick, and thus been the intellectual author of that method of medical knowledge and reasoning which is best known by the name of the Vienna school. I shall have to consider its representatives shortly, with all its virtues and faults, both of which were learned and learned from the illustrious Frenchman. For not only did he convey to them his anatomical way of thinking, but he also taught them to be satisfied with coarse local anatomical lesions and with a





spent on police, military, and dungeons, in which the flower of the country, and particularly of the universities, was incarcerated. During that time German thought had no place in terrestrial parts; even before that time Schiller had proclaimed man “free though he wore chains.” This sort of freedom the Germans utilized to become transcendentalists. The principal method of studying nature was imagination. Even Kant, the mathematical thinker, had taught them the art of construing things *a priori*. Then came Schelling with his system of natural philosophy ; and Hegel, who wrote twenty big volumes, and is reported to have said on his death-bed that in all his life he had but one pupil who understood him, and that one did not know anything about him. Under the influence of these philosophical absurdities no medical science could thrive. That was the time of animal magnetism and cranioscopical humbug.

In such a condition of universal intellectual semi-paralysis and revelry in big words and clouded sensations of all kinds, combined with the insensate and murderous character of therapeutics, it was natural that homœopathy could thrive, with its axioms that disease was an enemy from without, the result of psora or of medicines ; that nature was an enemy of man ; that nature will not cure a disease, but a medicine will ; that no medicine will cure which can be shown by any physical or chemical analysis to still exist ; that its dynamical power increases with its attenuation and annihilation. That was the time in which one of the great lights of German medicine defined inflammation as the



quite an array of medical genius. Rokitansky, Skoda, Hebra, have long reigned supreme. Broussais' doctrines, good and bad, were readily accepted ; his ontological gastro-enteritis was replaced by Rokitansky's doctrine of the crases of the blood, thus re-establishing the old humoral theory on an apparently firmer foundation. In Rokitansky's opinion the anatomical changes were the only things in medicine worth knowing. Skoda, for some time, experimented carelessly and unsuccessfully with remedies ; his ill-success and Rokitansky's teaching confirmed the nihilism of Broussais, against which Laennec protested in France, and made the expectant treatment and the nihilistic faith the gospel of German practice.

“ This was the medicine—the patients' woes soon ended,  
And none demanded : Who got well ?  
Thus we, our hellish boluses compounding,  
Among these vales and hills surrounding,  
Worse than the pestilence have passed.  
Thousands were done to death from poison of my giving ;  
And I must hear by all the living  
The shameless murderers praised at last.”

But in Goethe's “ Faust ” this is said by an incorrigible philosophical roué who is ready to give himself up to the devil, and in Germany it had the result that the public, who have a right to desire to be cured when they fall sick, preferred the homœopathic pill box to the pathologist's post-mortem case.

Not long after, Oppolzer, whose name ought to be blessed forever in Prague, Leipzig, and Vienna, began his influential career. In him Germany pos-













nals are replete with the very latest authentic bacterium of diphtheria. This time it is neither Klebs nor Eberth, but Löffler. Reports, discussions, and even editorials carry his name over the world. The very nature of diphtheria is said to be revealed again, as several times before : still, the discoverer admits that there are cases without the bacterium.

The matter is becoming ludicrous. I begin to fear something like the recent rebellion against piano-playing in a large European city. Is not music a godly art, and the piano a blessing to the musician ? But the playing of fifty thousand beginners in a large city is a nuisance. When bacterio-microscopy in the hands of beginners becomes noisy like piano-playing—noisy in books, pamphlets, and journals—a gentle protest is permissible. That protest is not meant for the masters who know how to wait and to mature. I do not speak against Robert Koch and his peers, who all of them are more modest than their followers. When the kings build, the cartmen are kept busy—and boisterous.

A dozen years ago the coccus of whooping cough was said to be discovered. There was no doubt about it. There was whooping cough, there was a coccus ; what was plainer and more conclusive ? To cure whooping cough, nothing is required but to kill the coccus. Quinine will kill a coccus, quinine cures whooping cough. Since that time there is no more whooping cough in existence ; or, if a case would be malevolent enough to turn up, it could not last longer than until a few whiffs of quinine can reach it. That is ludicrous, is it not ? But it



there were less journal articles containing the latest infallible discoveries. Thus it has come to pass that German medicine has a twofold aspect nowadays. The days of her superiority are not over yet; her greatest men still live, and the toiling thinkers are at work, but the number of speculators is immense. A great many of the articles printed in the journals of the last ten years have been prematurely published, the number of preliminary notices announcing discoveries under way is very large. The great embryo cannot wait. He is afraid of having his celebrity snatched away from him by the next-door microscopist.

Thus it is that we often find a difficulty in keeping our eye on the great lights, whose rays are always welcome. If learned and thoughtful specialism has its justification anywhere, its field is the solution of the mooted questions alluded to. Thus far I claim, however, that in regard to bacteriology the main questions are before the medical world still. I firmly hope the Academy will prove the centre of critical researches by which the problem, whether bacteric or chemical poison, still a mystery, will be carried near its solution.

In this expectation I am justified by a reference to the historical fragments you permitted me to sketch to night. There has been no deviation from the empirical and clinical tendency of Anglo-Saxon medicine from the beginning. It was so strong that it gave character to the medicine of the eighteenth century. In the words of the Testament I might say, Sydenham beget Boerhaave, Boerhaave beget Van Swieten, Van Swieten beget John Peter



in our own country. For, besides a great many of the former and present members of this Academy who have accomplished lasting results, there are a great many other Americans in other States and cities who stand on a level with the best of all nations.

From the reading of old journals I learned but lately that four years before Semmelweiss proclaimed the contagious character of puerperal fever, against the protest of the official standard bearers of obstetrics in Austria and Germany, our own anatomist, our philosopher, our poet, our Autocrat, our own Oliver Wendell Holmes, taught, it is true against the ridiculing sneers of Hodge and Meigs, the frequent transmission of puerperal fever by physicians and nurses. I might go on a long time, but I do not stand here to extol America or American medicine. Still I feel strongly that we may be well satisfied with what we, not protected by governmental interference, unaided by a slow growth through centuries, have accomplished in a proportionally short time. The last few decades gave us the library of the Surgeon-General's Office, the "Subject Catalogue," "The Medical and Surgical History of the War," standard books, no general as such in Europe, great journals, and a goodly array of valuable monographs, and vastly improved college education: this have raised great surgeons and clinicians of prominence, and have brought the profession of medicine to a point of view toward the human body and its diseases, and toward the sanitation of the human race, which would have been

All this I firmly believe is true. If it were not, let us make it so. If it be, let us still rise and work, and with all that let every man among us feel what Holmes said forty years ago: "I am too much in earnest for either humility or vanity."







nated for that purpose were Trier and C. Lange, of Copenhagen ; E. Bull, of Christiania ; Rauchfuss, of St. Petersburg ; Ewald and Bernhardt, of Berlin ; Schnitzler, of Vienna ; Pribram, of Prague ; Koranyi, of Buda-Pesth ; D'Espine, of Geneva ; Bouchard, of Paris ; Lepine, of Lyon ; Sir William Gull and Mahomed, of London ; Humphry, of Cambridge ; Sir Joseph Fayrer, for British India ; Gutierrez-Ponce, for South America ; N. S. Davis, of Chicago ; A. Jacobi, of New York ; and Isambard Owen, Secretary-General, of London. The only changes which have since taken place in the list of membership have been brought about by the untimely death of Dr. Mahomed, and the addition of Axel Key, of Stockholm, and Runeberg, of Dorpat.

According to a circular distributed by the Secretary-General some time ago, the main objects which the Committee seeks to attain through the Collective Investigation of Disease are to broaden the basis of medical science, to gather and store the mass of information that at present goes to waste, to verify or correct existing opinions, to discover laws where now only irregularity is perceived, to amplify our knowledge of rare affections, and to ascertain such points as the geographical distribution of diseases and their modifications in different districts. It will be its endeavor to place clearly before the whole profession the limits and defects of existing knowledge, as well as to stimulate observation and to give it a definite direction. It will be a not unimportant incidental result of its work should it tend, as is hoped, to the better training of the members of the profession in habits of scientific and



any great extent must be the work, not of units acting disconnectedly, but of the collected force of many acting as one. For many to act as one, organization is needed ; that organization it is the purpose of our committee to supply.

Disease is many-sided, and we wish to include in our organization those who see it from every side. All, therefore, whether hospital physicians, family and school attendants, specialists, medical officers of the army and navy, and of workhouses and asylums, will be asked to contribute their quota of observations to the common fund.

These are both the motives and the propositions of the committee appointed at Copenhagen. In regard to them, and collective investigations in general, the favorable opinion of the profession has been expressed frequently. But now and then a voice is still heard disparaging its utility, and discouraging the collection of facts on a large scale, for the reason that the procedure has not yet been demonstrated to be useful. Indeed it has not, for it has never been tried to a large extent. We shall hardly insist, however, that the ground stone must not be laid because the tower is not yet on the edifice ; that the seed must not be sown because the fruit cannot be harvested to-day or was not gathered yesterday.

Hesitation has also been expressed from another point of view. One of our foremost medical journals (the *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal* of September 4th, 1884) makes the remark that those who labor only for personal renown will not enter enthusiastically into the work proposed by the com-







ingenious experimenters, and our literary or personal friends of Europe, on our own soil. For an International Congress will never convene under the roof of a house divided in itself, though the division may be the work of a few sacrilegious hands only.

But this is a sad theme, known to everybody here, deplored by everybody who feels as both a personal grief and a public calamity the humiliation which is involved in the hesitation on the part of the International Congress to assemble in our country.

It is in profound sorrow that I pass by the subject; I prefer to speak of another topic, which, while it is not directly connected with any of the aims and immediate purposes of this Academy, concerns us as professional men of the State of New York and the Union. I allude to the almost unexpected success on the part of the profession of the State of New York in harmonizing a large majority of the medical men of the United States.

Let me explain. Chapter II., Art. IV., Sec. 1 of the Code of Ethics of the American Medical Association reads as follows: "A regular medical education furnishes the only presumptive evidence of professional abilities and acquirements, and ought to be the only acknowledged right of an individual to the exercise and honors of his profession. Nevertheless, as in consultations the good of the patient is the sole object in view, and this is often dependent on personal confidence, no intelligent regular practitioner who has a license to practise from some medical board of known and acknowledged responsibility recognized by their association, and





in a code of medical ethics which covers two pages instead of the eighteen pages of the Code of Medical Ethics of the American Medical Association (Proceedings of the National Medical Conventions held in New York, May, 1846, and in Philadelphia, May, 1847, pages 91-106 ; Philadelphia, 1846), reads as follows :

“Members of the Medical Society of the State of New York, and of the medical societies in affiliation therewith, may meet in consultation legally qualified practitioners of medicine. Emergencies may occur in which all restrictions should, in the judgment of the practitioner, yield to the demands of humanity.”

Compare with these brief sentences the explanatory declaration of the American Medical Association, passed unanimously in its session at New Orleans of April, 1885. Then and there it was

“*Resolved*, That clause first of Article IV. in the National Code of Medical Ethics is not to be interpreted as excluding from professional fellowship, on the ground of differences in doctrine or belief, those who, in other respects, are entitled to be members of the regular medical profession. Neither is there any other article or clause of the said Code of Ethics that interferes with the exercise of the most perfect liberty of individual opinion and practice.

“*Resolved*, That it constitutes a voluntary disconnection or withdrawal from the medical profession proper to assume a name indicating to the public a sectarian or exclusive system of practice, or to belong to an association or party antagonistic to the general medical profession.



as to oblige even the American Medical Association to recognize the justness of most of the New York proceedings. Upon this result the New York State Society can but be sincerely congratulated, and the spirit of equity and justice, as displayed by the Committee drafting the explanatory declaration, must be commended.

The expressions of opinion in regard to the wholesome effect of the New Orleans declaration have been very numerous. I am in possession of several letters containing remarks full of satisfaction and hope. A gentleman well and deservedly known in the profession of both hemispheres, and markedly so with us for his allegiance to the Code of Ethics of the American Medical Association, gave enthusiastic expression to his delight over the satisfaction that declaration must give, and to the hope that the New York Academy of Medicine would give a public utterance in that direction. That would "immediately settle all difficulty about the code, and at once restore peace and harmony in the profession." I had to tell him that the Academy excluded all politics, ethical or otherwise, from its discussions, and that the only societies who could act in the matter were the medical societies of the County and of the State of New York. There the matter then rested, for I believe I was right in excluding it from any consideration in our midst.

Still, while this Academy is no political body, old and new codes, as far as I know, being equally represented with us, we are an integral part of the body medical, and the events in the professional world affect our interests and sympathies intensely. Thus



again—their number has been large at all times—whose souls and sensibilities are moved by shibboleths, by single words, provided these words are skilfully handled by shrewd calculation.

“ Just where fails the comprehension  
A word steps promptly in as deputy.  
With words 'tis excellent disputing;  
Systems to words 'tis easy suiting;  
On words 'tis excellent believing;  
No word can ever lose a jot from thieving.”

BAYARD TAYLOR'S *Faust*.

This is the element which in skilful hands determines for a moment the result of meetings, caucuses, assemblies. It is the emotional element which is swayed by sentiment, both false and true, by gesticulating oratory, and by implicit temporary confidence in the veracity and sound motives of its presumed leaders; which, therefore, “takes the specialists of the new-code persuasion by the tops of their heads and cuts their throats,” but after all is cooled down by common sense, consciousness, and conscientiousness when left to itself. Such men are in the majority. They are the waves of the ocean, always changing, now smooth and smiling, then turbulent and raving, and still always the same, steady in their general effects; now and then a disturbance and an injury, but always the eternal source of healthful development. We never cease to bless the ocean, even when it is doing its temporary worst. Let us, therefore, not despair of the future peaceful and blissful development of the country or the profession in times of turbulent commotion.



*Medical Association*, and signed by the Permanent Secretary of the Association and four other gentlemen, the following language is used: "The editorials of the *Journal* of the Association present the case" (the differences in regard to the proposed organization of the International Congress) "so clearly that there can be no doubt of the duty of the friends of the Association, or of the animus of its enemies. We feel assured that your Society will indorse the action of the Association and stand firm in support of the Code of Ethics."

It is, however, fairly understood by this time that the war of the codes is over. In fact, it has always appeared to unsophisticated people that the fighting about the code was not reciprocal at all; for, when the New York State Society had settled its code question to its satisfaction and that of the county societies in affiliation therewith, it appears that in them and by them the subject was not mentioned again except on strong provocation. You remember that it took a great deal of emphasis to relieve even this Academy of the proffered dispute. The code question is dying a great deal more easily than the bloody shirt disappeared from the politics of the country. If it is puffed up as the pivot of the organization of the International Congress, everybody is perfectly aware that this is either a pretext or a grave mistake. I believe it is both. Europeans, who were not afraid of admitting laymen and homeopaths, expected to meet, if ever they would consent to cross the Atlantic for an International Congress, the American medical profession. No International Congress must be caught in domestic





interest of the general sessions by the communications coming to them from the sections and the discussions emanating therefrom.

To enable them to begin their work, Article VI. of the constitution had to be altered. That change has been brought about in the manner prescribed by law some months ago. It has also appeared to many Fellows that more alterations are required ; they have given notice of their desire in this respect, but have been unwilling to come before the Academy with any propositions to make radical changes, though in the manner prescribed by law. Now both the constitution and by-laws may be repealed or amended by a three-fourths vote at a stated meeting, provided notice of the same has been given in writing at a previous stated meeting. But it will prove more satisfactory to guard against any mistake by trusting the work of moving proposals to change our by-laws in the hands of a committee carefully selected for that purpose. Off-hand legislation is always dangerous ; it often errs, and always weakens the conservative tendencies which must underlie any political, scientific, or social structure, if it be expected to last. The President expresses the hope that if such a committee be appointed, it will be slow in considering and quick in reporting.

If I be at liberty to state a wish of my own, I should say that one of the articles which require amending is that which refers to the Committee on Medical Ethics. This committee is almost powerless ; it has no initiative whatsoever ; in every case calling for interference or judgment it has to wait



tion, will strengthen the feeble when he feels the first symptoms of struggling against temptation, may frighten the man of harder fibre who would otherwise rely on his facilities and the difficulties on the part of the committee, and protect the interests of society and the endangered dignity of the profession.

That I speak of no imaginary evil we all know too well. What I said a few months ago of the growing tendency of a few to make the public acquainted with their merits and accomplishments through the columns of the secular press was considered timely, and met with the appreciation of many members of the profession, both old and young, here and elsewhere. I mean to deserve the respect of my peers and superiors in the profession by again directing your attention to the fact that the penny-aliners of the daily press are being utilized in the interest of, and by, weak-kneed brothers who cannot stand on their own legs, who mistake cheap notoriety for reputation, and the grin of derision for the smile of approval. The more power is concentrated in commerce, the greater the prevalence which is conquered by trade, the more rampant the spirit of grasping egotism, which is pathognomonic of modern industrial pursuits, the more is it the domain of the liberal professions to approximate their aims to an ideal. Let us not forget that learning by heart the action of medicines, or the working of articulations, or the proper use of an instrument, does not exhaust the possibilities of a medical man. The physician requires all that, but, beyond that, all the characteristics of a man of principle and intellectual

and moral culture. Neither can be inculcated by the demands of old or new codes. Still, as a corporation and a profession, we are responsible for the existence of these qualities in our members. It is true we cannot supply ideals to order, nor can we make those whose eyes seek the mire raise their brow to the skies. But such as find it difficult to develop those qualities spontaneously must be taught and aided in acquiring them.

As far as I am concerned, I hope there will be no occasion again to refer to the same subject during my term of service. If there be, I shall repeat my warning. For I take it for granted that when you elected me to the highest office in your possession, you did so both in the belief that your candidate would have opinions and principles of his own, and on the condition that he should do his full duty.





perversity and disloyalty are bringing discredit upon American medicine.

Since there are no hopes of a genuine International Congress under the present management of affairs, the question arises as to what is the best course to pursue. Either the profession must take hold of the matter and reorganize anew, or we must beg our European brethren to withdraw their invitation. We should greatly regret to be forced to the latter alternative, especially as American physicians are very earnestly desirous of having the International Congress held here.

This being so, it only remains that they strive to act harmoniously and energetically with a view, at the next meeting of the American Medical Association, of reconsidering the hasty and ill-considered action taken at New Orleans. It will only be necessary, after all, that at the session in St. Louis next spring, the policy of the original Committee be adopted and that of the present Committee rejected. A large part of the detail work needs no change. Such restorative action might be criticised as inconsistent, but the injury of such criticism would be small indeed compared with that wrought by a pursuance of present methods. For it cannot be too often or too emphatically reiterated that a Congress like the one now being foisted upon us, a Congress that has been inoculated with the poison of a foreign and disorganizing issue, will be practically a failure. The removal of this issue, even so late as next spring, would still give time for organization to be effected. While there is yet this possibility of some change being effected at St.

Louis we will not quite give up the Congress. But meanwhile it will be hardly necessary to say that those who wish well of their profession will carefully keep aloof from all connection with the present Committee on Organization, which might better be called a Committee on Disorganization. This Committee should be vigorously let alone.





THE INTERNATIONAL MEDICAL  
CONGRESS.\*

CONCERNING THE THREATS OF NEW-CODE MEN AT  
COPENHAGEN—CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN DR.  
A. JACOBI, OF NEW YORK, AND DR. J. V.  
SHOEMAKER, OF PHILADELPHIA.

110 WEST 34TH STREET,  
NEW YORK, MAY 3d, 1885.

*Dr. J. V. Shoemaker, Philadelphia.*

DEAR SIR:—The *Medical News* of May 2d contains on page 494 the following: “Dr. J. V. Shoemaker said new-code men had made threats at Copenhagen in his presence, hence the statement that he had made was true, as men who had made these threats were now on the committee.” As far as I know, the only “new-code man” on the General Committee of the Ninth International Congress is myself. It is natural, therefore, that I should be anxious to know if you accuse me of having made threats.

Very respectfully yours,

A. JACOBI, M.D.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., May 5th, 1885.

*Dr. A. Jacobi.*

DEAR SIR:—The account in the *News* was not

\* The Medical Record, May 30th. 1885.

exactly as I made the remarks. As near as I can remember, the concluding sentence was, the statement that I had made was true, as the new-code men were fully represented on the Congress, which was the very best evidence of their recognition by the Committee.

Yours respectfully,  
J. V. SHOEMAKER.

NEW YORK, May 7th, 1885.

*Dr. J. V. Shoemaker.*

DEAR SIR :—Besides the *Medical News*, to which I referred you in a previous note, you are reported, in the *Medical Record* of May 2d, to have said that “the Committee . . . yielded to the threat made by the new-code men at Copenhagen, that unless they were recognized they would use their influence to prevent the Congress from coming to the United States.”

I cannot but repeat that I must request you—as I am the only “new-code man” on the Committee—to explain what induced you to make the statement you are credited with, or what may have been the cause of the uniform reports in the journals.

Very respectfully yours,  
A. JACOBI, M.D.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., May 9th, 1885.

*Dr. A. Jacobi.*

DEAR SIR :—I stated in my remarks, which have not been fully reported in any of the accounts that have appeared, the predictions made at Copen-



3. If not, what was the remark you made ?

Pardon me for requesting an answer, for I have to repeat again that I am the only "new-code man" on the General Committee who can have been referred to.

Very respectfully yours,

A. JACOBI, M.D.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., May 13th, 1885.

*Dr. A. Jacobi.*

DEAR SIR:—Your letter of May 11th is before me. It affords me pleasure to assure you that in my remarks at New Orleans I said nothing that was intended to personally implicate you. You need offer no apology for your persistency, as this explanation would be due any gentleman who regards himself compromised.

I infer from your letter that a personal explanation is what you want, and I am glad of this opportunity to place in your hands such documentary evidence as will exonerate you, if you have been wrongfully accused by others.

If you want any further information for public purposes, I have but to add that it will be *forthcoming* at the *proper time* and *place*. You will agree with me that your claim upon me can only personal not all (! A. J.) affecting individuals. So let me again assure you that I shall be most happy to make any explanations that will relieve you of any censure that my remarks may have brought upon you personally.

Yours respectfully,

J. V. SHOEMAKER.

MAY 14th, 1885.

*Dr. J. V. Shoemaker.*

SIR :—Your note of May 13th convinces me that you mean to persist in evading a straightforward and honest answer. I asked a few direct and intelligible questions, and you refuse to give anything but circumlocution.

When you spoke in New Orleans you knew you said what was untrue. And now that you are called upon for an explanation of your conduct you try to wriggle out of your responsibility.

You are altogether mistaken if you think—which I do not believe you do—that I need or desire any justification or exoneration at your hands. You know that what you said in New Orleans about threats being made was not true, and your letters show that you have not the courage to stand up to it.

A. JACOBI, M.D.

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NOTE.—A letter of Dr. Shoemaker's, which arrived two or three days afterward, was returned to its writer unopened.

A. JACOBI.







schäftigt. Sie werden es deshalb einem alten Fachmann nicht übel deuten, wenn er sich auch einmal herausnimmt, dieselben zum Gegenstand seiner Betrachtung zu machen.

Volksmedizin und offizielle Medizin stammen aus derselben Quelle. Das Bedürfniss, dem Erkrankten und Verletzten zu helfen, hat beide hervorgerufen. Die Beobachtung dessen, was in ähnlichen oder ähnlich scheinenden Fällen früher einmal nützlich gewesen sein mag, giebt die Grundlage für das Handeln in kommenden Krankheiten oder Zufällen. Dabei war es natürlich, dass dieselben nicht gerade als Naturereignisse, als Folgen natürlicher Vorgänge aufgefasst wurden, sondern dass man sie als Schickungen und feindliche Einwirkungen registrierte. Daher kam es, dass man gern sich an solche Personen wandte, von denen man voraussetzte, dass sie über Schickungen und übernatürliche Einwirkungen genau Bescheid wüssten. Das waren die Priester. Noch heute entsprechen die Zauberer der Neger, die Schamanen der Sibirier den Priesterärzten der Griechen, Aegypter und Inder. Nur der Medicinmann der Indianer, welche diesen Titel jedem höher Begabten und Unterrichteten in ihrem Stamme einräumen, da bei ihnen die Gnade der Religion noch nicht zum Durchbruch gekommen ist, gehört nicht zu dieser Klasse.

Mit den Priesterärzten der Aegypter und Griechen sind wir am meisten vertraut. Die Heiligthümer des Serapis in Memphis, des Aesculapius zu Epidaurus und Kos in Griechenland, und Pergamus in Kleinasien waren gesuchte Heilstätten. Die Temple waren an luftigen gesunden Stellen, in Hainen,



Schwindel entfremdet. Die ältesten chinesischen Bücher über Medicin datiren Tausende von Jahren, der Papyrus Ebers anderthalb Jahrtausende, die indischen Bücher, Susrutas Ayurvedas, zwölfhundert Jahre vor Christus zurück. Um die griechischen Tempel siedelten sich nicht selten Philosophenschulen an, deren Theilnehmer gute Naturbeobachtung und Trieb nach Wahrheit glücklich vereinigten. In dieser Weise wurde es möglich, dass Hippokrates von Kos eine so grosse Menge von naturgetreuen Beobachtungen sammeln und verwerthen konnte, dass noch heute, und für alle Zeiten, seine als echt anerkannten Schriften als Vorbild des wissenschaftlich geläuterten gesunden Menschenverstandes und der unverfälschten Symptombeobachtung am Krankenbette gelten können. Um so grösser sind seine Leistungen und um so vielfacher der Dank, welchen die Nachwelt ihm und dem Jahrtausend seiner priesterlichen Vorgänger schuldig ist, wenn Sie bedenken, dass der ganze damalige Fortschritt der Heillehre ohne Kenntniss des Baues und der Lebensvorgänge des menschlichen Körpers gemacht werden musste; denn Sectionen waren verboten. Galen, der vierhundert Jahre später lebte, erklärt es für ein grosses Glück, dass ihm vergönnt gewesen sei, auf seinen Reisen die Skelette von zwei Mördern zu sehen, welche man in Aegypten habe verfaulen lassen. Menschen seciren war ausser Frage. Seine Anatomie lernte Galen, oder glaubte er zu lernen, an Affen. Selbst Vesal, der grösste Anatom des Beginnes der Neuzeit, gerieth in Lebensgefahr wegen seiner anatomischen Arbeiten, und kaum







jeder zu dem Zwecke des Hinausschaffens der Schädlichkeit in Gebrauch genommen, und wenn zufällig, oder in Folge eines krankhaften Prozesses, oder einer künstlichen örtlichen Reizung die Körperoberfläche der Sitz einer Ausscheidung wurde, so war nichts natürlicher als dass man dieselbe schonte, pflegte und segnete. Was sagt der gute Onkel Bräsig: "Du kannst Dir mit die Dams erzählen, was Du willst, wirst aber schwerlich 'ne Antwort kriegen, wenn Du nich von ihre Krankheitsgeschichten anfängst, wo oft sie schon Püekeln über den ganzen Leib gekriegt haben, un Swären un blinde Dinger; denn das ist in einer Wasserkunst die gebildetste Unterhaltung."

Im Zusammenhange damit lassen Sie mich ein Beispiel dieser Art Volksanschauung prüfen, welches zu Erläuterung dessen, was ich beweisen wollte, von Interesse sein mag.

*Kopfausschläge* bei den Kindern werden für eine grosse Wohlthat angesehen und vielfach sorgfältig gehütet. Lassen Sie mich ein paar Worte über diese armen, schmutzigen Kinderköpfe sagen. Der Schmutz ist zweierlei, richtiger normaler, oder Krankheitsprodukt. Jener findet sich bei ganz Kleinen, ein paar Monate alten. Auf Kinderköpfen sind eine grosse Anzahl Talgdrüsen stark entwickelt; bevor das Haar dichter wächst, ist deshalb die Kopfhaut, die Stirn, und das Näschen, das liebe kleine Näschen, fettig glänzend anzusehen. Oft bekommt sogar der Finger beim Fühlen den Eindruck der Fettigkeit. Die Absonderung dieser Talgdrüsen häuft sich in den Drüsen, in den Ausführungsgängen und in deren Umgebung an, ver-













Glauben, den er von den Lippen der Nachbarfrauen der ganzen Welt annahm, erklärt hat? Sehr einfach so, und vergessen Sie es nicht. Im siebenten Monat der Entwicklung des Kindes regiert Luna (Mond). Sie begünstigt die Lebensfähigkeit durch ihre Feuchtigkeit—übrigens ist der Mond herzlich trocken und nur die Nächte sind nass—und das von der Sonne erhaltene Licht. Im achten regiert Saturn. Der hat seine Kinder gefressen und setzt das Geschäft noch immer fort. Im neunten regiert Jupiter, der Lebensspender, und das ist gut für die Kinder.

Wenn die nun geboren sind, leben sie durchschnittlich in guter Gesundheit, doch in grosser Gefahr. Die Uebergang in das neue Leben, die schnelle Wandlung im Blutlauf, der Einfluss wechselnder Temperaturen, die zarte Entwicklung und Unfestigkeit der Organe und Gewebe bedingen häufige Krankheit und frühen Tod. Mit jedem Tage, welchen das Kind sich von der Geburt entfernt, wird es kräftiger und lebenssicherer, die Sterblichkeit nimmt mit jeder Woche, jedem Monat, jedem Jahre ab. Der zweite Sommer kostet weniger Opfer als der erste. Wer Augen hat zu sehen, der schaue in die amtlichen Register und finde den Beweis dafür in den Zahlen. Aber der zweite Sommer kostet mehr Opfer als er sollte. Die Schuld liegt nicht am *zweiten* Sommer, nicht an den Kindern - sie liegt an der *Sommerhitze* und an den Eltern. Die Sommerhitze kann immer gefährlich sein, Sommerhitze bei schlechter Nahrung wird vielfach tödtlich. Thatsache ist, dass fast alle Sommertodesfälle bei Kindern von Krankheiten



Lassen Sie mich von den Einzelheiten schweigen—gefärbtem Candy, saurer Milch, frischem Brod, Wurst, Kaffee und Thee, rohem Obst, Gemüse: Durchfall-Krankheiten—Tod. Todesursache? Natürlich, zweiter Sommer. Ich sage Ihnen, das Gestorbensein ist nicht schlimm für den kleinen Leichnam. Aber kein Grabhügel vergräbt den Jammer und das Verschulden der Ueberlebenden.

Aber haben die Ueberlebenden nicht das Ihrige gethan? Gewiss, als das Kind krank wurde, haben sie gesagt, das Kind zahnt ja; oder, das kommt vom Sommer; oder, die Nachbarin sagt, ihr Kind hat es gerade so. Schliesslich wird das Gesichtchen dünn und die Haut welk, und man fragt den Doktor. Oft wird es gut, die Nahrung wird beschränkt, oder geändert. Aber bei manchen heisst es: "Was? Gerstenschleim? Das Weisse vom Ei? Dazu hätte ich keinen Doktor gebraucht! Nicht so viel trinken lassen? Ich lasse mein Kind nicht dursten!"

Jetzt kommt die Reihe an das, was heutzutage Volksmedizin geworden ist, käufliche Kindernahrungsmittel. Sie müssen sehr gesund und zuträglich sein; in Deutschland, England und Amerika, werden hundert verschiedene Sorten gemacht. Sie sind so zuträglich, dass sehr viele von den Fabrikanten sich sehr wohl dabei befinden. Sie haben auch den Vorzug vor der einfachen und leicht kenntlichen Kindernahrung, dass sie theuer sind, denn die Fabrikschornsteine rauchen doch nicht umsonst—und eine Nahrung, wie Gerste, Hafer und Kuhmilch, so billig und so einfach, kann doch nicht das richtige sein. Es wird also "kaiserliches





nun zu einigen Fragmenten über populäre Arzneimittellehre.

Die Schnelligkeit des modernen Verkehrs, das Aufhören des Abgeschlossenseins des ärztlichen Standes, die Zunahme der Bücher, Journale, Wochenblätter, Tageszeitungen aller Art haben eine grosse Summe von Kenntnissen oder scheinbaren Kenntnissen in allen Schichten der Bevölkerung verbreitet. Die vergrösserte Anzahl der Arzneimittel, und ihre Besprechung in der Tagesliteratur, ferner die wachsende Dichtigkeit der Bevölkerung hat zu einem enormen Verbrauch von Arzneimitteln geführt. Kaum wurde eine neue Arznei in ärztlichen Kreisen bekannt, einerlei ob ihr Ruf feststand oder nicht, so bemächtigte sich auch das Publikum derselben. Einige haben sich ein solches Bürgerrecht erworben, dass sie zu Hausmitteln geworden sind. Lassen Sie mich nur einige von denen nennen, welche bei uns in allgemeinem Gebrauch sind. Vom Opium nenne ich nur Soothing Syrup und Paregoric. Das erstere ist ein unzuverlässiges, bald zu mildes, bald zu kräftiges Opiumpräparat, deshalb oft wirkungslos, und nicht selten gefährlich. Aller Warnungen ungeachtet, wird es viel gebraucht; sein Gebrauch ist Missbrauch. Paregoric ist ein officinelles Präparat, welches in einer halben Unze einen Gran Opium enthält. Die Maximalgabe lässt sich daher leicht berechnen; die meisten Präparate der Art, welche in den Apotheken zum Hausgebrauch verkauft werden, sollen abgeschwächt sein, um Unfällen zu begegnen. Natürlich widerrathe ich den unberechtigten Gebrauch. Es ist leicht, Arzneien zu neh-



nei und verlangt daher eine kundige Hand; ich hoffe, dass sich in den deutschredenden Kreisen ihre Verehrer nicht vermehren. Der Chiningerbrauch hat sich unendlich gesteigert. Da es die Temperatur des catarrhalischen und entzündlichen Fiebers herabsetzt, und da sich aus ärztlichen Kreisen, in welchen die Bedeutung hoher Temperaturen besser verstanden wird, in die Volkskreise der Glaube verbreitet hat, dass das Herabdrücken der Körperwärme in den meisten Krankheiten das Hauptziel der Behandlung sei, so ist man blind in das Mediciniren mit Chinin hineingegangen. Das Publikum wird wohl thun sich daran zu erinnern, dass gelegentlich grosse Gaben von Chinin vergiftend wirken, dass sie Blindheit und Taubheit machen, und dass auch kleine Gaben für unvorbereitete Verdauungsorgane verderblich wirken können. Der Chininmissbrauch hat noch dadurch seine besondere Ausdehnung erhalten, dass es das Hauptmittel in Wechselfieber und anderen Malaria-krankheiten geworden ist. Der wohlklingende Name Malaria hat sich nun schneller eingebürgert als Pocken oder Cholera, und wirkt bösartiger auf die Geister, als diese Pesten auf die Leiber. Es giebt heute schon kein Uebel, das nicht in der Meinung des Publikums seine volle Berechtigung hat, wenn das geheimnissvolle Wort von den Lippen der Frau Nachbarin fällt. In diesem Zeitalter des Zweifels und der Skepsis ist der Glaube an die Allgegenwart und Allmacht der Malaria eine Macht geworden, der zu widersprechen heute fast eben so bedenklich ist, wie es vor Jahren riskirt war zu erklären, dass man zu keiner Kirche gehöre. Die



zahlt hat, werden bald vergessen. Das vermehrte Herzklopfen bei andern, welche noch nicht ganz reif zum Selbstmord sind, wird nur als Beweis dafür genommen, dass das Bad gewirkt hat. Dass ein mächtiges Mittel, wie jene Bäder, bestimmte Anzeigen hat und ein zweischneidiges Schwert ist, das gelegentlich die wirkliche oder vermeintliche Krankheit, gelegentlich aber den ehrsamten Besitzer trifft, wird übersehen oder nicht geglaubt.

Eine andere Methode Krankheit oder gefürchtete Krankheit aus dem Körper zu entfernen, ist das Verabreichen von Abführmitteln. In früheren Zeiten waren die Quecksilbermittel hier zu Lande die gebräuchlichsten. Die angelsächsische Medicin brauchte viel Calomel und *blue mass*. Als dieselben aus der regulären Medicin zu verschwinden begannen, bemächtigte sich das Publikum dieser Mittel und führte den Aerzten durch ihren Missbrauch zahlreiche Patienten zu. Nicht bloss wurden sie gebraucht und missbraucht, sie wurden sogar verehrt und mit Rücksicht behandelt. Ein Mann, der Calomel genommen hat, betrachtet seinen Leib als zeitweilig geheiligt, und macht Anspruch darauf, dass sein Nebenmensch diese Situation respektirt. Ich fragte einst einen seit einem Dutzend Jahren verstorbenen Collegen, dessen sich Manche von Ihnen noch erinnern werden: "Was thun Sie, wenn Sie Nachts nicht ausgehen mögen?" "Was ich thue? In der That, ich thue gar nichts. Ich rufe durch mein Sprachrohr: *Good gracious, very sorry indeed, have just taken my calomel.*"

Seit Jahren haben die dringenden Anzeigen der völkerbeglückenden Importeurs Calomel und *blue*









habe, dass nämlich das Zahnen an Hirnentzündungen, Lungenentzündung, Sommerdiarrhoe, krummen Beinen, dicken Knochen, Verkrümmungen des Rückens, Lähmungen, sogar an Mundentzündungen unschuldig ist. Vielleicht ist mir noch einmal vergönnt, auch vor gemischtem Publikum die Irrlehre von der Gefährlichkeit des normalen Zahnens zu bekämpfen.

Das letztgenannte Uebel, die Mundentzündungen, führt mich übrigens zu dem Thema der zu Hausmitteln gewordenen Arzneien zurück, von dem ich ausgegangen war. Das chlorsaure Kali, oder besser Kalium, fälschlich Chlorkalium genannt, englisch : *Chlorate of Potassa* oder *Potassium*—(gelegentlich auch das Natrium oder Natriumsalz der Chlorsäure) —ist seit etwa dreissig Jahren in der Medicin vielfach verwandt worden. Es ist ein gutes, wahrscheinlich das beste Mittel in den gewöhnlichen Formen catarrhalischer und geschwüriger Mund- und Halsentzündung, welche ihren Ursprung der Reizung durch plötzlichen Temperaturwechsel, Unreinlichkeit, faulige Zersetzung von Nahrungsresten und Quecksilberarzneien verdankt. Es ist auch als Beihülfe zur Behandlung der gewöhnlichen Formen der Halsdiphtherie vielfach empfohlen worden. Die grosse Häufigkeit dieser Krankheitsformen, besonders in den letzten fünf- oder sieben- undzwanzig Jahren, hat sowohl Namen als auch Gebrauch dieses Mittels im Publikum bekannt und sehr populär gemacht. Die Folge davon ist gewesen, dass es zum Range eines sogenannten Hausmittels in des Wortes verwegenster Bedeutung gestiegen, oder gefallen ist. Ich sage wohl nicht zu



brauchen. Er trank die Masse im Laufe eines Nachmittags und war in drei Tagen eine Leiche. Dasselbe Verfahren mit demselben Resultate ist sonst seither beobachtet worden. Vor drei Jahren sah ich in der oberen Stadt einen kräftigen Schulknaben von fünfzehn Jahren, dessen Geschichte die folgende war: Seinem Schulvorsteher klagte er über Schlingbeschwerden und bat um Urlaub, um zu seinem Doktor zu gehen. Jener erklärte, das sei unnöthig, er wisse vom Hals soviel wie der Doktor. Er solle Chlorate of Potash kaufen, und fleissig damit gurgeln und davon trinken. Der vertrauende Knabe that wie ihm geheissen war. Nach sechs Tagen traf ich ihn sterbend von dem Gifte, von dem er, wie der Arzt sorgfältig herausgebracht, fünf Tage lang fleissig äusserlich, und innerlich täglich etwas mehr als drei Drachmen (zwölf Grammes) gebraucht hatte. Ich würde froh sein, wenn dies die einzigen Fälle der Art wären. Seitdem ich zuerst die Gefahr des Mittels—nicht im Jahre 1860, wie in seinem kürzlich erschienenen Buche über den Gegenstand Mehring mir zuschreibt—im Anfange der siebenziger Jahre, dann wieder in 1877 in Gerhardt's Handbuch der Kinderkrankheiten, und in einer eigenen Arbeit im Jahre 1879, bekannt gemacht habe, vermehrte sich die Literatur über Fälle von ähnlichen Vergiftungen in erschreckendem Masse. Zwanzig Gran für ein einjähriges Kind im Laufe eines Tages, neunzig Gran für einen Erwachsenen in derselben Zeit sind eine reichliche Gabe. Was darüber ist, das ist vom Uebel und eine grosse Gefahr. Wenn ich Ihnen nun vor diesem beliebten "Hausmittel" einen



und heilt auch nicht eine Krankheit, sondern den Kranken, je nach seiner Individualität. Wenn man es doch jemals fertig brächte, diese zwei einfachen Sätze den Menschen klar zu machen. Dieselben Wesen aber, welche sich empört wundern würden, wenn man ihnen zumuthen würde, eine Nagelbürste oder einen Apfelkuchen zu construiren, weil man das doch erst gelernt haben muss, finden es ganz begreiflich, bis an die Ellenbogen in chlorsaurem Kali, Chinin oder unerforschtem Soothing Syrup zu arbeiten, wie die gichtischen und rheumatischen Bauern am Rhein in den Eingeweiden frisch getödteter Thiere.

Von Patentmitteln, Nostrum's aller Art, kostspielig annoncirten Mitteln is dabei noch gar nicht geredet worden. Es ist wohl auch nicht nöthig, denn nichts ist leichter zu verstehen als dass die grosse Alliteration R. R. R.—nicht "*rum, rheumatism and rebellion*", sondern Radway's Ready Relief; dass Witchhazel, dass erst recht, meine Damen--und Herren auch—Pond's Extract Alles kurirt. Alles ohne Ausnahme, meine ich, äusserlich und innerlich. Man sieht gar nicht ein, wie irgend Jemand daran zweifeln kann. Es ist so albern, dass man es glauben muss. Man kann ja doch auch glauben, wenn man nur will, dass ein Ring an jeden Finger passt, eine Schraube in jedes Loch, eine Kugel in jedes Gewehr, ein Rock an jeden Leib, ein Hinterwäldler in jedes Amt. *Credo quia absurdum est*. Ich will es mit meinen Freundinnen nicht verderben; ich glaube an Pond's Extract, und bis zu einem gewissen Grade, an andere Curiosa auch. Man kann sich freilich nicht



gen, besonders dem deutschen, in der Krippe geschoben wird. Diese Sorte Literatur ist sehr gross, und zwar in allen Ländern. Diese Büchelchen sehen einander auf ein Haar ähnlich: dieselbe Verachtung vor dem Wissen, der Wissenschaft, der deutschen Sprache; dieselbe Selbstverherrlichung; die kurzen Sätze und Absätze.

Nur ist ein Unterschied in der Bearbeitung derselben ganz auffallend. Sie werden finden, dass ein englisches oder amerikanisches Buch, das für Reclame irgend eines Schwindels gemacht wird, wissenschaftliche Thatsachen oder Sätze irgend welcher Art zu Grunde legt, um darauf ein trügerisches Gebäude zu errichten. Die Verfasser dieser Dinge bekunden damit einen gewissen Respekt vor dem Publikum, das sie gewinnen und täuschen wollen. Nicht so der deutsche Apostel. Er hat so wenig Achtung vor denjenigen, welche er anredet, dass er plumperweise weder Kenntnisse noch Intelligenz bei ihnen voraussetzt, und ausdrücklich von sich selber ausposaunt, dass die Resultate dessen, was Jahrtausende ehrlicher Geistesarbeit errungen haben, ihm unbekannt und gleichgültig sind.

Es giebt natürlich bessere Bücher als diese unwürdige Klasse, und auch die Zahl dieser besseren, welche für das grosse Publikum bestimmt sind und die gesammte Diätetik und Medicin oder einige Theile derselben behandeln und mundgerecht machen sollen, ist enorm. Der Wohlthäter dieser Art giebt es sehr viele, die Wohlthaten aber sind karg gemessen. Thatsache ist, dass fast alle diese Schriftsteller über das Ziel hinausschiessen. So angemessen die Grundkenntnisse vom Bau und





dadurch an Werth. Der erste Band enthält gutes Material aus der Anatomie, Physiologie und Diätetik. Der zweite Band enthält eine ausgedehnte Krankheitslehre. In demselben finden Sie in der letzten Auflage Behauptungen aufgestellt, welche noch lange nicht erwiesen sind, z. B. dass Lungenschwindsucht bloß von eingeathmeten Bacillen stammt. An anderer Stelle eine minutiöse Beschreibung und Behandlung der allerverschiedensten Vergiftungsformen, Abhandlungen über krankhafte Neubildungen und Geschwülste mit griechischen Namen, unter denen ich den unvorbereiteten und nichts Böses ahnenden Anwesenden zu Cystomen, Hygromen, Enchondromen, Fibromen, Sarkomen, Exostosen u. s. w. ganz besonders Glück wünsche. Wieder an einer andern, zum Hausgebrauch, eine Aufzählung ausländischer Krankheitsformen als da sind, Lepra, Aleppobeule, Elephantiasis, Frambösia.

Grobe Irrthümer giebt es dabei in Menge, selbst in Bezug auf Gegenstände, welche dem einfachst unterrichteten Arzt geläufig sind. Was der Verfasser über die häufige Krankheit der spinalen Kinderlähmung sagt, ist meist falsch. Wenn er die Rhachitis der Kinder die Folge ungenügender Kalkzufuhr in der Nahrung nennt, so behauptet er, was genügen würde, einen Kandidaten durchfallen zu lassen. Wenn er vom grossen Veitstanz als einem häufigen Vorkommen spricht und Regeln für seine Behandlung angiebt, so weiss er eben nicht, dass er wahrscheinlich nie einen gesehen hat, eben so wenig, wie tausend andere Aerzte, welche ein reichliches Quantum Arbeit liefern, ohne jemals einem



und in Genesung übergeht.“ Ich habe indessen noch Niemand getroffen, der mit dem statistischen Resultate zufrieden war, dass die meisten andern Leute genesen, falls sein eigenes Leben in Gefahr ist. Uebrigens brauchen die Kranken nicht zu verzagen. Falls sie nämlich wissen sollten, dass sie an einer Lungenentzündung leiden—dass sie ihren Zustand erkennen, setzt der gütige Schriftsteller voraus—versieht sie der arztfeindliche Verfasser mit einer langen Reihe von Regeln. “Sehr heftige Brustschmerzen werden durch Eisumschläge, Senfteige, oder Schröpfköpfe gemindert.“ Sie haben also die Wahl. “Gegen drohende Herzschwäche sind kräftige Reizmittel anzuwenden.“ Jetzt weiss der Kranke Bescheid. Natürlich weiss der Kranke oder seine Umgebung, wann Herzschwäche droht, was ein kräftiges Reizmittel ist und wie es angewendet werden soll, nämlich folgendermassen: “Stärkung der Nerven ist *natürlich* nicht durch Arzneistoffe, sondern nur auf diätetischen Wege zu erreichen”; d. h., der Verfasser des vielgelesenen Buches räth Ihnen, wenn Ihnen ein Kind oder eine Mutter oder Schwester an Herzschwäche in einer Lungenentzündung zu Grunde zu gehen droht, keinen Aether, oder Kampher, oder Moschus, oder Cognac aus der Apotheke zu benutzen, sondern diätetisch zu verfahren. Was das heissen soll, ist mir unklar. Vielleicht soll man Biersuppe kochen, oder Chamillenthee, oder Trost zusprechen. Und solche Leute nimmt das Publikum ernsthaft, blos weil sie sich, wie Heine sich ausdrückt, ihre Unwissenheit selber erworben haben.

Nehmen Sie noch ein Beispiel, das Ihnen bewei-



geben könnte, werthvolle Vorschriften und Erklärungen zu geben, so ist dies das Kapitel der Hautpflege, aber unter den zwölfhundert Seiten füllt dieser Abschnitt nur zwei. Auf diesen zwei Seiten sind abgehandelt: Allgemeine und örtliche, heisse, laue und kalte Bäder, Sturzbäder, Uebergiessungen, Arzneibäder, Soolbäder, römische Bäder, Abwaschungen, Einpackungen, warme Umschläge, unterbrochene Berieselungen. Dahingegen haben sie achtzehn enggedruckte Seiten von Verletzungen und deren Bedienung, die manchen Ballast enthalten, aber auch manche guten Sachen, unter denen z. B. die Behandlung des Krankenzimmers, die diätetische Pflege des Hustens, und die zehn Seiten über die Behandlung der Bewusstlosen und Verunglückten eine rühmende Erwähnung verdienen.

Nichts kann dem Kritiker, welcher an dem Wohl und Wehe des Nebenmenschen Antheil nimmt, angenehmer sein als der Umstand, zu solcher Anerkennung berechtigt zu sein. Leider kann sie nicht oft gezollt werden. Die Sindfluth von Schriften, welche den Anspruch erheben, populär zu sein, sind entweder von solchen geschrieben, welche den Druck als Annoncirmittel missbrauchen, oder sie sind des Vergnügens halber veröffentlicht, welchen es gewährt, seinen werthen Namen gedruckt zu sehen, oder sie setzen zuviel voraus oder wollen zu viel lehren. Viele von ihnen machen dabei Anspruch auf unverdiente Originalität. So z. B. hat die sogenannte Volksmedizin, in Gestalt des Naturheilverfahrens, der Hydropathie u. s. w., vielfach den Anspruch erhoben, die Entdeckerin neuer Prin-



selber vorzulegen. Die vier Bücher, welche ich Ihnen hier vorlege, sind sämmtlich zwischen den Jahren 1734 und 1811 geschrieben. Der Einblick in dieselben, und der Anblick der reichlichen Citate wird Ihnen beweisen, dass die Literatur über diesen Gegenstand schon in jener Zeit eine sehr ausgedehnte war.

Nun ist statt des kalten Wassers kürzlich, d. h. seit einem Dutzend Jahren, das warme Wasser, oder vielmehr das heisse, Mode geworden. Es ist nicht mehr nöthig, sich mit dem Essen in Acht zu nehmen. Iss was du willst, schädlich oder nicht, süss oder sauer, langsam oder schnell, mässig oder nicht, dein Magen wird unfehlbar gesund, wenn du früh Morgens ein Glass heissen Wassers trinkst. Dem Arzt, welcher fragen wollte, ob nicht unter den Umständen, wenn doch einmal heiss getrunken werden muss, ein aromatischer Thee, wie Fenchel oder Anis, besser schmecken dürfte, antwortet man mit einem mitleidigen Lächeln. Was dem Kanonenstiefelstudiosen der saure Häring, ist dem Philisterthum das heisse Wasser. Zu fragen weshalb, ist nicht nöthig; zu antworten, noch viel weniger. Das heisse Wasser ist die Reaction gegen das Eiskwasser. Hat man endlich einmal gelernt oder gehört, dass der übermässige Genuss des Eiskwassers gesundheitsgefährlich ist, ei, so fällt man in's andere Extrem und glaubt, die Sünden des Tages durch ein Heisswassermorgengebet abspülen zu können. Unter den Tausenden, welche der Mode huldigen, mögen wenige sein, welche versucht haben, sich die Gründe für irgend etwas klar zu machen, was sie ihrem Leibe Gutes oder Böses an-





erlernen, wie Rechnen und Schreiben. Wichtig genug ist es, denn die Zukunft der Nation und des Menschengeschlechtes hängt von der Kenntniss der Grundsätze und der Befolgung der Gesetze ab, wie in der Politik, so in der Diätetik.



city of their consciences. It required the invention of powder and guns to make their castles useless, change the hitherto unprotected into dangerous adversaries, and thus render the aristocrat virtuous. This compulsory virtue changed them into willing servants of the princes, whom they obeyed, either on the battlefields or in the waiting rooms. They and their offspring, unless they have consented to take part in the physical or intellectual labors of the world, have contributed nothing to the development of morals and culture.

This is not what we may designate aristocracy in America. Our country has the advantage of not suffering from the evil inheritance of the mediæval period. What it has grown into being, it has become by hard work both of hands and brains. That kind of aristocratic family was the one Austin Flint hailed from: in it he might well have rejoiced, though pride would never be pardonable in anything accidental and not accomplished by one's own efforts.

With such hereditary advantages he was born in Petersham, Mass., on October 20th, 1812. They were followed by those resulting from a liberal education in Amherst, and in Harvard, where he graduated in medicine in 1836. Since that time, without any interruption, he has been in the practice of his profession, adding to the daily practical labors much and varied literary work, and for the last thirty years constant services as a teacher of medicine in six different colleges.

In Northampton and Boston he practised three years until he moved to Buffalo, N. Y., in 1836.



which it was held mainly to his contributions. From 1848 to 1850 he published articles on diabetes, the pathology of typhoid fever, on the epidemic of cholera in Buffalo, on serous effusions into the arachnoid cavity, on pleuro-pneumonitis complicated with pericarditis, and on fifty-two cases of typhoid fever. These essays were followed, in 1852, by clinical reports on continued fever and on variations of pitch in percussion and respiratory sounds, and their application to physical diagnosis ; in 1853, by clinical reports on dysentery and on chronic pleurisy ; by (1856) his physical exploration of the chest and the diagnosis of diseases affecting the respiratory organs, and (1859) his practical treatise on the diagnosis, pathology, and treatment of diseases of the heart. In 1865 he wrote his compendium of percussion and auscultation, and of the physical diagnosis of diseases affecting the lungs and heart ; and finally, in 1866, his treatise on the principles and practice of medicine.

It is not necessary to enumerate his many essays and papers before and after that time. The publications of the United States Sanitary Commission and the better journals of the country bear evidence of his ever-increasing experience, willingness to contribute to the common stock of knowledge, and the eagerness of the journals to print his papers.

His literary reputation was deservedly a very great one. Some of his works have been translated ; his treatise had an immense sale. The method and mode of his writing is characteristic and instructive ; if some of the modern writers



years ago. When, the next day, he received a note from one of those present, in which the necessity was urged to add muriatic acid to the doses of pepsin he had advised, he called in person to express his appreciation of the, then new, suggestion and the letter containing it. There was, however, one thing he was jealous of, viz., the honor of his country. When, in a discussion, he once complained of the oblivion of Carr's name in connection with the causation of the crepitant râle, and the pre-eminence attributed to foreign authors in regard to the explanation of respiratory sounds, he was rejoiced and proud when he was shown the page on which Winternich gives full credit to the American practitioner. Vanity and exalted opinion of himself were not his faults. He would never have accepted the eulogistic exaggeration proclaimed in a recent obituary, in which it is claimed that nobody in this century has done so much as he, or more than he, for the diseases of the respiratory organs. He would have urged that friendship and esteem must never go so far as to obscure the names of Laennec the Frenchman, Skoda the Austrian, and Stokes the Briton.

Still, he was original in many things. His discussions on pitch and resonance will always be read with pleasure and profit. Though we owe to him no great discoveries, we and our successors shall always admire his clear way of dealing with known facts and new observations, and of popularizing for the medical mind the latest evolutions of medical thought and the most mature fruit of scientific research.





can Medical Convention, since called Association, at New York, on May 5th, 1846, he was appointed on a committee to report on a resolution, offered by Dr. Isaac Hays, for a uniform and elevated standard of requirements for the degree of M.D. in all the medical schools of the United States. The report is signed by R. W. Haxall, Chairman, and can be found on pages 63-77 of the Proceedings of the National Medical Conventions, held in New York, May, 1846, and in Philadelphia, 1847 (Philadelphia, 1847). The very first of the ten resolutions embodied in that report is this: "That it be recommended to all the colleges to extend the period employed in lecturing from four to six months." And it is true what a late number of a journal\* says, "that that report is still to-day a most interesting, applicable, and valuable document." But, alas! the slowness of spontaneous evolution, and the predominance of circumstances, and the weight of impediments are such as to cripple even a strong man like Austin Flint, who, though his life was spared long, never saw the hopes of his younger years fulfilled.

His successes as an author and a teacher were equalled by those accomplished in his consulting practice. In those special branches to which he had given so much of his time and attention his counsel was frequently requested. No matter whether he had anything new to say, or had only to confirm the diagnosis or fortify the position of the practitioner, everybody here knows that he was always kind, mild, and modest. There is nobody here but has often either admired his superior

\* Journ. of the Am. Med. Assn., March 27th.



But some time ago everybody took sides in regard to the code question. So did you, so did I, so did Austin Flint. But to belong to a party does not mean to be an offensive partisan. And if ever a party man—so I believe—was impartial, that man was, or tried to be, Austin Flint, whom we honor as much for his words as for his actions. When a man works himself up into celebrity, his memory must serve the surviving as did his life. His opinions ought to be learned from his own papers published in the *New York Journal*.<sup>\*</sup> Read them as if he were still among you. He is among you. For those who have lived a life worth living do not die. I am willing to abide by the platform laid out in those essays. They contain the same thoughts expressed by your presiding officer in an address delivered from this place on October 1st, 1885. Two days afterward that address appeared in print. Two days after its publication I received from the great and good man who is now gone a letter which I shall be proud of preserving as a legacy. I hold in my hand this note of Austin Flint's, which begins with the words: "I have read your address with pleasure"—and finishes with these: "How beautiful, lovely, and salutary it is to promote peace, harmony, and brotherhood!"

On the evening of his inauguration as President of the Academy, in 1871, his predecessor, one of the most illustrious types of American erudition and versatility, Edmund Peaslee, had a right to say to him: "We have always found you the high-minded and sympathetic man and the genial

<sup>\*</sup> April, 1883. Also in his Presidential address of 1884.



His membership in the Academy ceased a few weeks before March 13th, on which he breathed his last. You remember the universal reluctance on the part of those present to accept his resignation, and the silence with which the remarks of the presiding officer were listened to. *Malevolence only could misconstrue, and has misconstrued, into their opposite his words of appreciation and regret.* There is one great gratification even in that resignation of his. His good-will toward the Academy is best exhibited by his staying as long as he did, under rather peculiar circumstances; and, moreover, we shall know, by the gift of his library which he bequeathed to the Academy, that the latter was dear to his heart. For the Academy not to speak words of praise and remembrance in behalf of his memory, in this hall which he graced and in which he taught, in spite of suggestions and even demands to the contrary of a personal character; not to keep his memory green among us, is an impossibility. As it is for us, so for the medical men of the country. His name and reputation form part of the history of our profession, and this Academy means to honor its dead who have gone into history.

In listening to or reading the eulogies of the dead, I have often been struck with the well-meant but still obtrusive exaggerations of their characters and services. It then appeared to me that the writer buried the memory of the friend under an oppressive weight of high-strung flatteries. It reminded me of the manner in which an inconvenient beggar is forever cast aside by buying him



colleagues honored him. His writings obtained for him a national and international reputation. There was no place of honor in the possession of the profession of the city, State, or country which he has not filled. The profession of Europe was anxious to show its respect for him. Thus he lived and worked to an advanced age, disturbed by but few symptoms of evanescing powers, and when the time came he ceased to labor and live on the very same day.

As a profession let us hope that we shall have many like him.





graced and in which he taught, in spite of suggestions and even demands to the contrary of a personal character ; not to keep his memory green among us, is an impossibility. As it is for us, so for the medical men of the country. His name and reputation are part of the history of our profession, and this Academy means to honor its dead who have gone into history."

These remarks had a peculiar significance to many of the physicians in the room. They knew that while Dr. Jacobi was uttering them he had in his coat pocket correspondence from the widow of Dr. Flint, urgently requesting him not to deliver the memorial address. This correspondence had been an open secret in the profession for a few days past, and there was some curiosity to see what Dr. Jacobi, as President of the Academy, would do about it. When Mrs. Flint first heard that Dr. Jacobi had nominated himself to deliver a memorial on her husband, she wrote him a request not to do so, insisting on her right as a widow to name the person who should perform a service so personal to her, and mentioning that she had already made up her mind as to who this person should be.

To this communication Dr. Jacobi made a reply, in which he asked to be informed who it was that Mrs. Flint had selected to memorialize her late husband before the physicians of the Academy. Mrs. Flint thereupon informed the President of the Academy that she did not desire a memorial of the doctor to be read before it at all ; the doctor was not a member of the Academy at the time of his death, and, under the circumstances, it was her de-



and dwelt at length upon the incalculable benefits of the results of his work to the profession. Particularly did he refer to Dr. Flint's eminent success as a teacher, his systematic clearness and elegant simplicity of language in the lecture room, and his invaluable contributions to medical literature. He was a model for young men in demonstrating that a sound preliminary education, systematic work, and solidity were the only basis for successful teaching. Dr. Jacobi referred to Dr. Flint's reluctance to see medico-political differences creep into organizations with which he was connected, and said that he knew from personal information that the demoralization growing out of party lines on the code question had caused Dr. Flint much pain.

Inasmuch as Dr. Flint was President of the Academy from 1871 to 1873, the doctors listened with much interest, and some of them with astonishment, to the portion of Dr. Jacobi's address quoted verbatim at the outset of this report. Dr. Jacobi said to a *Times* reporter that he considered it an honor due him, as President of the Academy, to deliver the memorial address to Dr. Flint. His correspondence with Mrs. Flint and the misunderstanding with some of her friends was, he thought, based largely upon a mistake.

"The night that Dr. Flint's resignation was acted upon," said Dr. Jacobi, "no one present spoke in response to my reading the resignation. I commented on this showing significantly with what regret the resignation was received, and I said furthermore that I considered it a very high honor to belong to this Academy and felt very sorry that

Dr. Flint should have taken a step which would deprive him of the privilege of membership. It was a very great surprise to me to learn that my remarks had been interpreted, and even reported, as saying that the Academy could get along without Dr. Flint if he could get along without the Academy. I certainly never meant to convey any such impression."





kehrte er nach Buffalo zurück, brachte mehrere Winter als Professor der Medicin in New Orleans zu, und siedelte 1859 nach New York über. Von hier aus bekleidete er bis zum Jahre 1868 eine Professur am Long Island Hospital College in Brooklyn, und vom Jahre 1861 an, in welchem das Bellevue Hospital Medical College gegründet wurde, die Professur für innere Medicin an dieser Anstalt. Einen Tag vor seinem Begräbnisse fand die letzte Entlassungsfeierlichkeit für die eben Diplomirten Statt.

In seiner Schule war er die bedeutendste und einflussreichste Persönlichkeit. Es ist daher zu bedauern, dass er seinen grossen Einfluss nicht zu Gunsten der Verlängerung der Lehrcurse und der Vertiefung des Unterrichtes angewandt hat. Ungewöhnliche Schwierigkeiten müssen dem Manne in den Weg gelegt worden sein, dessen medicinisches Gewissen und reife Einsicht ihm ohne Zweifel lange klar gemacht hatten, dass der ärztliche Stand Amerika's nur durch bessere Vorbildung und gründlichere Schulung der Studenten gehoben werden kann. Dies ist um so mehr zu bedauern, als in mässigem Grade eine andere der hiesigen Schulen, in viel höherem aber die medicinische Schule der University of Pennsylvania und des Harvard College, lobenswerthe Schritte in dieser Richtung gethan haben.

Als Lehrer war Flint sehr populär. Seine Darstellungsweise war, ohne beredt zu sein, einfach und klar. Dem Fassungsvermögen seiner Hörer wollte er sich genau anpassen. Aber nicht bloss Studierende, sondern auch Aerzte folgten seinen





## JUSTIN FLINT.

Präsidenten des Internationalen  
Zusammentreten in  
1887, er mit Sicherheit er-  
Europa war er gern gesehen.  
Anlagen wurde er ausgezeich-  
Medical Association erwartete  
im kommenden Sommer.  
schmerzloser Tod hat sein  
Leben zu einem glück-  
Seine ruhige und anspruchs-  
Vorbild für diejenigen sein,  
durch eine einzige glänzende  
leistung, durch Zeitungsreklame  
und Einkommen sichern zu  
amerikanischen Aerzten  
ersten Plätze ein, obgleich man  
Wahrheit ein Unrecht begeht.  
Lobhudler gethan haben, ihn  
wie La. oder Stokes erhebt, oder  
stellt.

INSCRIPTION ON TABLET ERECTED IN THE  
HALL OF BELLEVUE HOSPITAL

IN MEMORY OF

AUSTIN FLINT, M.D., LL.D.,

BORN OCT. 20TH, 1812. DIED MARCH 13TH, 1886.

Entering his profession with broad culture and thorough education, he remained an active physician to the last day of his life.

As a medical writer he added to the knowledge of the American profession and to medical science.

As a teacher he was loved and respected by thousands of pupils in all parts of the country.

As a physician to Bellevue Hospital for twenty-five years he contributed largely to its reputation, by his character, acquirements, labors, and wise counsels.

Erected by the Commissioners of Public Charities and Correction.

H. H. PORTER, *President*,  
THOS. S. BRENNAN,  
CHAS. E. SIMMONS. .





vidual explorer and expert, has, considered from the standpoint of the profession at large, a practical tendency. If we exclude, as we all do, metaphysics from the domain of science, there is no science, or part of it, ever so abstract, apparently ever so abstruse, but is utilized and useful in the interest of mankind. Here it is where the most abstract medical scientist and the most practical professional man meet on common ground. All science, as it is human in its origin, is raised above the level of mere theory by the service it renders to humanity. Thus the medical profession, with its practical tendency and its claim that all medical science can and must be made serviceable to the physical and mental well-being of man, is the best representative of science, and both science and the profession may well be considered together. Indeed, I believe there is no country in which this principle, that medical science's highest aim and main object are the preservation and restoration of health in the individual and the community, is recognized to a greater extent than in America.

The aim of medical science to preserve or restore health is reached in two ways, and the men who reach it, and form the whole of the profession, are of two classes. Some work as searchers, experimenters, and teachers; some in the ranks in the service of daily practice. But all have the same interest at heart, that of relieving suffering and benefiting mankind. Thus the physician, of whatever grade, has a double responsibility: he shares the duties of a citizen of the Republic with every intelligent man, but he has his own, graver, more



for and consulted, not only by those who are acknowledged to be physically diseased, not only in the regulation and enforcement of private and public hygiene, but in questions involved in the greatest difficulties. I cannot see the possibility of a solution of the most serious questions of criminal law without the physician. The solution of the moral insanity question, it is true, has been sought for without the necessary scientific premises, but still the great questions of insanity and crime, and brain and insanity, cannot be answered except by medical research, and there will be a time when the physical history of a criminal, and the study of his skull and face and teeth, the symmetry or asymmetry of his body, will form the basis of a judicial procedure.

This is an ideal condition and aim, but not so ideal as to preclude its realization. The changes in the political condition of the old world, and those in the social of the old and new, are so rapid that much that was considered impossible but a little while ago is looked upon to-day as the coming necessity.

If such be the future rights and expectations of the profession, if it mean to be the protector and adviser of the commonwealth, what has it to offer to-day as an offset to so much honor, and as its legal claim for the performance of such onerous duties?

Many of those who at present study medicine and are admitted to the profession—for instance, the farmhand who obtains a diploma after two or three so-called courses, or ten or twelve months altogether, of what he and his chums are pleased to call study; the clerk who was unfit for his trade because he was





admit to their schools, and because they reduce the number of their students rather than encourage their locust-like increase. If on *that* basis we were to have not only Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, but every large city of the Union, as medical centres, so much the better for the profession at large, and medical science in the States and everywhere. Until we have, however, accomplished that, let us be modest and acknowledge the fact that we are far below our aims and away from the realization of our hopes. It appears to me that we speak a little too much of the claims of this or that city as a medical centre. If the results equalled the local ambitions, we should hear less of claims. Whoever is on the top does not decry the climbers. If many were on the top there would be no envy. So let us all arrive at the top and work in parallel lines, each proud of and encouraging the other.

And now, Mr. President and gentlemen, I think I might safely conclude my remarks, which you have listened to with courteous attention. You have been good enough to invite a New Yorker to reply to the toast on the profession. I can assure you that the New York profession tries to be as advanced as that of other cities, both in knowledge and morals, and that there are very many amongst us who strive to share in the highest intellectual and moral efforts of the profession of any country. Whatever the country may have been told of the Gothamization of the profession in the commercial metropolis, let me assure you that the reports are based on mistakes, if on nothing worse. Nor is it true that anything has occurred in the ranks of the



word is the doctor a priest, but everything attributed to the priest and his high calling, intellect, erudition, general culture, sobriety, earnestness of purpose, conscientiousness, purity of heart, and self-sacrifice in the interests of his calling—all the qualities, indeed, which raised him above the ranks and made him qualified to be priest, physician, and judge—have been, and will forever be, the honor and the recognition mark of the true physician.

Let us all work for that end as well as we can, singly and together. Let that aim be inscribed on the flag of the profession, and let it be visible far and wide. By keeping our eye on the great future, let us not forget that the roads are many while the ideal is one. We can always prove that we belong to the great family of idealist physicians, scorning low motives, despising mean measures, to our honor and that of the profession and of the country.

And now I *shall* close. I give the floor to my betters, and return to my seat and to New York. In regard to Philadelphia I have added to my knowledge to-night. I remember but very few occasions on which I was in this city. Once I had the pleasure of meeting some of you over the remains of the Siamese brothers. Otherwise I know but little of the city, except that I had to read, and did read gladly, your books and journals. I knew that this was the city in which the Declaration of our Independence was signed, and the greatest American lived, Benjamin Franklin; that there were several hospitals here, and two illustrious colleges, and a museum of natural history. I was also once in a medical study, that of Alfred Stillé. Thus I came

to the conclusion that every Philadelphian study looked like his, and every Philadelphian medical man was an Alfred Stillé. I was also told that Philadelphia was a very, very quiet place, and I sometimes felt that the whole city must be hushed, like a laboratory or a library. In how many of these beliefs or impressions I may have been mistaken, I cannot judge from this place. But I shall tell the New York friends that I have learned a good deal to-night—namely, how strangers are made to feel comfortable; and that all the good and great men of Philadelphia's profession can be brought together in a single festive hall without strife, dissension, and hesitation; and that the College of Physicians of Philadelphia has thus accomplished what the New York Academy of Medicine is aiming at and laboring for. If, at last, *I* were to pronounce a toast, it would be no other but this: the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, *vivat, floreat, crescat*.

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## WACHSTHUM.

EIN IM DEUTSCHEN GESELLIG-WISSENSCHAFTLICHEN  
VEREIN AM 28. APRIL 1886 GEHALTENER VORTRAG.\*

WIE “wächs’t” ein Krystall? Dadurch, dass aus der Lauge eine Anzahl gleichartiger und gleichgestalteter Körpertheile eines nach dem andern sich anlegen. Jedes Einzelne dieser Theilchen ist schon an und für sich ein Krystall. Der grössere Körper, welcher sich aus einer Unzahl derselben bildet, ist nur an Masse, nicht an Wesen und Würdigkeit von der kleinsten Daseinsform verschieden. Die Krystallmasse lässt sich in unendlich viele Theilchen zertrümmern, doch dadurch geht der Begriff des Krystalls nicht verloren.

Hierin liegt der Unterschied zwischen der unorganischen Existenz und dem Organismus. Ich sage mit Absicht nicht, zwischen dem unorganischen und dem organischen Wesen. Denn es gibt organische Formen, welche Vermehrung und Theilung vertragen, ohne in ihrem eigenen Wesen zu gewinnen oder zu verlieren.

Solche niederste Form, in welcher sich organisches Leben zeigt, ist das Protoplasma. Es ist dies eine gleichförmige, kaum mit mikroskopischen Körnchen versehene schleimige Masse, welche als organische Materie sich nur mit Mühe erkennen

\* Sonntagsblatt der N. Y. Staats-Zeitung.

lässt. Die sog. Amoeben sind solche Protoplasma-kügelchen von nur mikroskopischer Kleinheit. Sie sind rundlich, verändern aber auf Reize ihre Gestalt, sie sind beweglich, bestehen aus gleichmässiger Masse, haben keine Organe irgend welcher Art, Nahrungsmittel verschmelzen sie einfach mit ihrer ganzen Substanz, aber—wie gesagt—sie empfinden, sie bewegen sich, sie sind belebt. Ihre Vermehrung geschieht dadurch, dass, wenn sie an Masse zunehmen, sie sich theilen, und die glückliche unschuldige Existenz von früher fortführen.

Die nächste Stufe aufwärts im Reiche des Organischen ist die Zelle. Vor dem Protoplasmakügelchen zeichnet sie sich dadurch aus, dass sie einen mehr soliden Kern, und weniger veränderliche Form besitzt, bis zu dem Grade, dass man ihr eine Umgebungshaut zugeschrieben hat, in welcher die Zellenmasse eingeschlossen gedacht wurde. Die rothen Blutkörperchen sind ein gutes Beispiel dieser Zellen, während die weissen Blutkörperchen den Amoeben noch näher stehen.

Auch die Zelle vermehrt sich durch Theilung. Dies ist aber nicht die einzige Veränderung, welche sie eingeht. Sie verändert ihre Gestalt, sie verlängert sich, bildet Fäden, und die Vervielfältigung desselben Vorganges gibt zur Bildung von Geweben Veranlassung. Unterdessen kann sich auch, neben der vergrösserten Zahl, die Eigenschaft der Zelle verändern, und zwar geschieht dies ohne allen Zweifel durch eine natürlich innewohnende erbliche Anlage des Protoplasma oder der Zelle selber. Mit der veränderten Eigenschaft und Gestalt entwickeln die Zellen Funktionen verschiedener Art. Von den





Fischen aufwärts bis zum Wirbelthierreiche. Der Vorgang ist an dem ungeborenen Thierchen mit Vorliebe studirt worden. Tausend Forscher haben sich mit dem Gegenstand um so lieber beschäftigt, als die Lösung der betreffenden Fragen eine schwierige ist. Vor allen Dingen hat die Entstehung des Hühnchens im Ei aus der Keimschicht, welche der Oberfläche des Dotters in einer Breite von nur 2.5–3.5 Mm. und eine Dicke von 0.27–0.35 Mm. aufliegt, zahlreiche und wichtige Aufklärungen gegeben. In die Einzelheiten hier einzugehen ist unmöglich. Nur auf eine Thatsache will ich aufmerksam machen, welche darin besteht, dass das Wachsthum, sobald Gewebe und Organe gebildet sind, zweifacher Natur geworden ist. So lange der Embryo des Huhnes und jedes andern Wesens aus Zellen besteht, ist das Embryonalwachsthum das Resultat der Saftströmung von Zelle zu Zelle, der sog. Osmose; sobald aber im Laufe weniger Stunden oder Tage eine Gewebs- und Organbildung stattgefunden hat, kommt zu der Zellsaftströmung die Ernährung durch Blutgefäße von einem entfernten Kreislaufsmittelpunkt hinzu, den wir Herz nennen. Diese zwei Arten von Saftströmung und Ernährung gibt es in jedem neugeborenen Wesen. Durch sie wird das Wachsthum vor und nach der Geburt bestimmt. Ohne mich weiter zu verweilen, will ich daher mich zu dem Wachsthum desjenigen Körpers wenden, für den wir Egoisten uns noch immer am meisten interessiren.

Einige Thatsachen mögen Ihnen veranschaulichen, in wie verschiedenartiger Weise je nach Alter und Geschlecht das Wachsthum des Neuge-



Jahre bleibt nun der Unterkörper zurück. Aber vom sechszehnten Jahre an wächst derselbe so, dass das Verhältniss von Oberkörper zu Unterkörper nach manchen Rechnungen wie 382:618 beträgt. Mit dem siebenten Jahre ist der Oberkopf fast vollendet, vom zwölften bis zum fünfzehnten Jahre wachsen die Kiefer bedeutend, bis zum sechsten wächst der Kehlkopf, um bis zum dreizehnten bis fünfzehnten zu ruhen und sich nachher, besonders beim Knaben, um so rascher zu entwickeln. Um dieselbe Zeit, besonders vom fünfzehnten bis zwanzigsten Jahre wachsen die Knochen und der Bart; vom zwanzigsten bis fünfundzwanzigsten schreiten Knochen, Muskeln und Brustkorb in der Entwicklung rasch fort, der Kehlkopf beginnt schon zu verknöchern, während ein Organ, die Thymusdrüse, ganz verschwindet. Das Herz wächst von 120–140 Ccm. auf 215–290 Ccm. in dem kurzen Zeitraume vom dreizehnten bis vierzehnten Jahre.

Nicht blos Mediciner vom Fach, sondern auch Künstler haben sich mit dem genauen Messen des Körpers und seiner Theile befasst. Schadow hat die folgenden Zahlen: die Länge des Neugeborenen beträgt 18 Zoll, die des Erwachsenen 66. Die Zunahme beträgt im ersten Jahre 10, im zweiten 4, im dritten 4, im vierten 3, im fünften 3, im sechsten 2, im siebenten, achten, neunten und zehnten je 1 Zoll. Mit dem vollendeten siebenten Jahre tritt also eine Verlangsamung des Wachstums ein. Das Verhältniss der oberen Rumpffportion (Brust) zu der unteren beträgt im Neugeborenen 1:2, im Erwachsenen 1:1,618. Diese normale Proportion wird mit dem achten Jahre erreicht.



Noch in anderer Weise lässt sich die Ungleichheit des Wachsthum's klar machen. Die Hälfte des schliesslichen Gewichts erreicht das Gehirn im ersten Jahr, die Leber im achten bis neunten, Herz, Nieren und Milz im zehnten, die Lungen im elften Jahre.

Die Reihe der Zahlen und Gewichte, welche sich auf den ganzen Körper beziehen, will ich hier unterbrechen, um mich zur Betrachtung einzelner Organe zu wenden. Nur wenige kann ich zu dem Zwecke auswählen; sobald ich an die Behandlung des gewählten Themas gehe, zeigt es sich, dass ich ihm im ganzen Umfange nicht kann Gerechtigkeit widerfahren lassen. Nehmen Sie vorlieb mit dem, was ich im Laufe der nothwendiger Weise beschränkten Zeit und bei naturgemäss limitirter menschlicher Geduld, zum Theil an Thatsachen, zum Theil an Nutzenwendungen, werde bieten können.

Lassen Sie mich mit dem *Gehirn* beginnen, dessen Wachstumsperioden zu eigenthümlichen Erscheinungen Veranlassung geben. Die Verrichtungen des Gehirns hängen von seiner anatomischen, physikalischen und chemischen Beschaffenheit ab. Die Quantität und Qualität der Hirnarbeit beruht, neben manchen andern Dingen, vorzugsweise auf der Menge des in der Hirnsubstanz enthaltenen Fettes und Phosphors. Beide finden sich bei dem Erwachsenen zumeist in der weissen Hirnsubstanz, bei dem Neugeborenen im verlängerten Mark. So erklärt sich das Ueberwiegen der Arbeit des verlängerten Marks bei dem jungen Kinde vorzugsweise aus seinem grossen Gehalt an Fett und Phosphor.



























keit für die Ausbildung des Stirntheils des Schädels und der grossen Vorderhälften des Gehirns, von denen unter sonst gleichen Bedingungen die Summe der individuellen Geistesfähigkeiten abhängt. Im Allgemeinen kann man sagen, dass, je später im Verhältniss zu den übrigen Nähten die vordere Quer- oder Kranznaht verknöchert, desto mehr Möglichkeit für die Ausbildung der denkenden Hirntheile gegeben ist. In dem bevorzugten Weissen verknöchert sie zuletzt, und erlaubt daher eine passende Wölbung des Vorderkopfes, in dem Neger mit seiner niedrigen zurückliegenden Stirn und nach rückwärts mehr entwickeltem Hirn ist sie die erste von allen, welche sich schliesst. Schläfenbein und Scheitelbein finden sich oft bei Negern, sogar bei Mongolen, ohne Scheide und Grenze; und in Dahomey hat Duncan öfters Schädel beobachtet, welche gar keine Nähte hatten.

Ähnliche Verschiedenheiten finden sich nun nicht allein typisch in Völkern und Racen, sondern auch individuell. Das längere Offenbleiben der Kranznaht erlaubt, wie ich schon bemerkt habe, eine Hervorwölbung des Vorderkopfes, wodurch entweder die Entwicklung des Vorderhirns unterstützt, oder nur der schönheitliche Schein derselben gewährt wird. Ist dieselbe Kranznaht die erste in der Reihe der verknöchernenden Verbindungen, so verliert die Stirn die Fähigkeit, sich zu entwickeln, und im besten Falle wird die grössere Masse des Gehirns in die nachgiebigeren Theile der Schädelhöhle gedrängt, ohne gerade an Masse und Schärfe der Funktion zu verlieren. Solch einen Schädel hatte

















Vielgeschäftigkeit Berufener und Unberufener viel zu leiden gehabt haben, und noch haben. Bevor ich indessen diese Bemerkung weiter verfolge, lassen Sie mich einige interessante Abweichungen in dem Erscheinen und dem Bau der Zähne hier berühren. Ich thue das um so lieber, als ich seit meinem vorjährigen Vortrag, in welchem ich des Zahnens und der Zähne nur in einigen Worten gedachte, wiederholt aufgefordert worden bin, dem Gegenstande mehr öffentliche Aufmerksamkeit zu schenken.

Der jüngere Plinius berichtet, dass Marcus Curius, der um 270 A.C. Konsul der römischen Republik war, Zähne auf die Welt brachte und daher Dentatus genannt wurde. Papyrius und eine Dame, Namens Valeria, hatten auch Zähne bei der Geburt, wie derselbe Autor berichtet. Zoroaster soll nach alten Historikern, wie Weinrich anführt, alle seine Zähne auf die Welt gebracht haben; diese Frühreife entspräche dann der gewaltigen Entwicklung, welche der grosse Moralist und Gesetzgeber während seines späteren Lebens durchmachte. Ludwig XIV., wie auch sein Kardinal Mazarin, hatte Zähne bei der Geburt; in seinem Fall wird dem Hugo Grotius die Prophezeiung in den Mund gelegt, dass, wie er als Säugling seine Amme blutig riss, er im späteren Leben seine Nachbarn zerreißen würde. Ist natürlich eingetroffen, obwohl man nicht wissen kann, ob die Prophezeiung der Erfüllung vorherging, oder umgekehrt. Richard III. und Mirabeau ging es ebenso. Scottus berichtet den Fall eines spanischen Zwerges, der bei der Geburt Zähne, mit sieben Jahren einen Bart, mit zehn Jahren einen



Fall eines Mädchens, das im Alter von dreizehn Jahren seine ersten Eckzähne hatte ; Fauchard beobachtete ein Kind, das nur einige wenige Schneidezähne hatte, als es fünf oder sechs Jahre alt war. Brouzet berichtet von einem Kinde, das im Alter von zwölf Jahren nur die Hälfte seiner Normalzahl an Zähnen hatte und dessen halber Kieferrand so hart war wie bei alten Leuten. Dugès sah den ersten Zahn im elften, Smellie im einundzwanzigsten Jahr durchbrechen. Solcher ausnahmsweiser Verspätungen gibt es noch manche in der Literatur, ich habe viele davon in einem Kursus von Vorlesungen vor fünfundzwanzig Jahren veröffentlicht. Zu jener Zeit hatte ich ein Kind in Beobachtung, welches im Alter von zwei Jahren und zehn Monaten noch keinen Zahn und keine Andeutung eines solchen hatte. Ein anderes Kind von zwei Jahren ist mir unter ähnlichen Verhältnissen im Jahre 1859 oder 1860 vorgekommen. Sein Fall ist im Register des Deutschen Dispensary aus jener Zeit verzeichnet.

Die Verspätung des Zahndurchbruchs kann am besten durch ungenügende Keimbildung oder durch Entzündung und Verhärtung des Kieferrandes erklärt werden. Diese Ursachen können zu vollständiger Abwesenheit der Zähne führen. Botallus kannte eine Frau von sechzig Jahren, welche nie Zähne hatte. Auch Valla und Baumès haben solche Fälle verzeichnet.

Ungenügende Zahl der Zähne ist wohl öfter beobachtet, abgesehen von Fällen, in welchen zu frühes Ausziehen der Milchzähne den Kieferraum beengte, nämlich wo von Anfang an die Zahl der



und daher nicht gefallen. Ich will daher noch einen wahrheitsgetreuen Bericht mittheilen, den ich einem—allerdings seit einiger Zeit verblichenen—Kollegen verdanke. Derselbe hiess Jacobus Horstius und würde heute Jakob Horst heissen. Er schrieb im Jahre 1595 ein Buch mit dem folgenden Titel: “Ueber den goldenen Kieferzahn eines schlesischen Knaben; erstens, ob seine Erzeugung mit natürlichen Dingen zuring; zweitens, ob man im Stande ist, eine würdige Erklärung davon zu geben.” Es versteht sich von selber, dass die Erzeugung dieses goldenen Zahnes mit natürlichen Dingen zuring und dass die Erklärung dieser Merkwürdigkeit eine höchst würdige war. Daher schliesst das Buch folgendermassen: “Es ist nun unsere Aufgabe, den Zorn Gottes durch glühende Bitten und ernsthafte Reumüthigkeit zu beugen, die Jahre der Tribulation abzukürzen und also das goldene Reich und die Wirkung des goldenen Zahnes schneller herabzuflehen.”

Schon damals, wie Sie sehen, gab es Leute, denen die Zähne, Zahnung und Zahntheorien zu Kopfe stiegen.

Neben der ersten und zweiten Zahnung werden auch Fälle von dritter Zahnung erzählt. Selten wird der Ansprucherhoben, dass diese dritte Zahnung sich auf alle oder die meisten Zähne erstreckt. W. Jackson hat einen Fall bei einem Manne von vierundsechzig und bei einer Frau von achtzig Jahren, in welchem die Schneidezähne sich zum drittenmal erzeugten, und zwar ohne Hülfe des Zahnarztes. Sorgoni erzählt, dass ein Knabe zum drittenmal zahnte, als er zwölf Jahre alt war, und





























sich in aller Kürze mittheilen lässt. Ueberdies lassen sich an denselben so viele Nutzanwendungen knüpfen, dass gerade dieser Gegenstand augenfällig einer von denjenigen vielen ist, in dessen Betrachtung sich Theorie und Praxis, Wissen und Anwendung, unmittelbar vereinigen.





eine ausschliesslich wissenschaftliche Vereinigung, denselben Zwecken durch die Gründung von Sectionen Rechnung getragen.

Die zweite Klasse von ärztlichen Verbänden sind nur zum Theil wissenschaftlicher Natur. Bis zu einem gewissen Grade sind sie politisch und stehen in einem festeren oder lockereren Verhältniss zum politischen Leben, zu den Legislaturen der einzelnen Staaten. Die Vereinigten Staaten sind ein Staatenbund, der erst seit zwei Jahrzehnten sich zu einem Bundesstaat langsam umgestaltet hat. In diesem Staatenbunde sind die einzelnen Staaten souverän, aber ihre Gliederung, Verwaltung und ihre ärztlichen Angelegenheiten sind in allen ziemlich gleich. Ich will daher an dem Staate New York ein Paradigma dessen aufstellen, was mehr oder weniger genau sich in jedem anderen Staate wiederholt.

Bis lange nach der Annahme der Constitution, vor beinahe einem Jahrhundert, gab es keine medicinischen Schulen. Die Aerzte waren in kleiner Zahl Schüler englischer Anstalten, oder älterer Aerzte, oder Autodidacten, oder Schwindler. Die besseren Kräfte fanden sich in Vereinen zusammen, zu gegenseitiger Belehrung, zu gegenseitigem Schutz und demjenigen des Publikums. Bei den Legislaturen ihrer Staaten kamen sie um die Genehmigung ihrer Statuten ein und wurden sofort mit gewissen Gerechtsamen versehen, welche vorzugsweise darin bestanden, dass der Mann, welcher Medicin zu practisiren beabsichtigte, von dieser staatlich gewordenen "State Medical Society" eine Licenz durch abgelegte Prüfung erwerben musste.











































































zu schreiben. Aber unsere Zustände sind so unerbaulich, und die Aussichten so trübe, dass erst Ihre Mahnung mich veranlasst hat, den Faden meiner Erzählung hiermit wieder aufzunehmen. Im Grunde ist auch wenig zu berichten; ich wiederhole nach einem meiner früheren Briefe, dass der Kedseligkeit des Herausgebers des *Journals der Amerikanischen Medicinischen Association*, als es sich um die Beantwortung von Vorschlägen handelte, welche im Interesse des etwaigen Internationalen Congresses von Seiten der Ausgetretenen gemacht wurden, ein absolutes Schweigen folgte.

Unterdessen geschah nichts. Resignationen kamen nur noch in kleiner Zahl vor, denn die Männer, welche eine Vergangenheit und einen Ruf haben, waren schon ausgetreten. Der Mann, welcher durch seine Stellung und Bedeutung der Amerikanischen Medicinischen Association und ihrem Congresse noch einen gewissen Halt bot, Austin, einer der Aeltere, starb; und eingestandenermaßen war Niemand da, auf dessen Schultern sein Nachfolger fallen konnte. Man sprach von Da Costa als seinem Nachfolger, aber nach wie vor blieb derselbe bei seinem Entschlusse, mit dem Internationalen Congress, wie er in Aussicht stand und steht, Nichts zu thun haben zu wollen. Unterdessen waren aber doch sowohl er, wie seine Philadelphiaer Collegen, noch einmal in praktischer Weise zusammengekommen, um den Congress vielleicht noch zu beschicken. Es handelte sich um die Wahl der Delegirten für die diesjährige Sitzung der Association zu New-York. Die Philadelphiaer und Genossen brüsteten sich mit dem Entschlusse, dass sie in der Philadelphia



















meinschaftlichen Sitzungen zusammen, um sodann ihren Spezialarbeiten nachzugehen. Die Präsidenten der einzelnen Associationen sind Vicepräsidenten des Congresses. Der Ort des Congresses ist Washington.

Die Spezialassociationen haben in ihren Versammlungen seit Jahren Bedeutendes geleistet. Die neu gebildete Association von Aerzten wird ihnen hoffentlich würdig zur Seite stehen. Die Verschmelzung aller schon gebildeten, oder noch zu gründenden Associationen zu einem Ganzen, auf ähnlichen Grundlagen, wie diejenigen der einzelnen Gesellschaften sind, wird für Mittheilung, Ausgleichung, und Einheitsgefühl Erspriessliches leisten. Was uns fehlt, soll der ausgedehnte Plan schaffen: Vereinigung der arbeitenden und strebenden amerikanischen Mediciner zu selbstlosen, wissenschaftlichen, unpolitischen Zwecken. Quod bonum, felix faustumque sit !











**266 RESOLUTIONS ON TENTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS.**

**in Europe, to postpone the gathering of the International Medical Congress, thus far intended for Washington, until a more propitious time when the whole and undivided profession of the United States shall be prepared to receive it, delivered from the spirit of local dissensions, unanimous and harmonious.**





















ally to the tax office or the jury box, because the law of the land enforces it, but that which is impelled by the laws interwoven with the folds of your hearts. That is the sense of duty which bids you to speak kindly to a weeping child in the street, to climb the rickety stairs of a dark tenement to hunt up the indigent, to distribute flowers amongst the beds of the poverty-stricken, forsaken, hungry-looking sisters in the hospitals—hungry for bread and hungry for a look of sympathy; or, if your means permit, to give of these means—both a permanent benefit to the suffering poor and a lasting blissful gratification to your own hearts.











and must be public. To me personally it is a source of intense gratification that the new rule should be inaugurated during my presidency. Thus was granted to me, what I hardly had the courage ever to hope, to witness the realization of what often was considered an ideal future. Thus there is one ideal at least that has become a fact.

The participation of the most intellectual class of the lay public in what formerly would have been, and was, the exclusive domain of the profession, proves that the conviction is gaining ground that medicine is the most humane and the most practical of sciences. Indeed, science and practice are not divergent. Their aims are identical, they serve each other, and both joined serve mankind.

Learning and practical tendency go very well with each other. That is what I shall prove by the discourse of a gentleman who is known to erudite men of all classes as a scholar, to his professional brethren as a learned physician, and to his numerous admirers among the public at large as a consummate practitioner—Dr. William H. Draper.























New York to be the city of learning, erudition, and culture, as it has become that of industry, commerce, and wealth.

It will have still another influence interesting to every one of you, not so much indeed as proud citizens of this much-berated and much-beloved New York, but as individuals. In behalf of your own domestic circle, of your children, and those who come next in your affections, it will aid in creating that being whose nature will be discussed to-night by a gentleman who is known among us as one of the most honorable, sturdy, philosophical, and learned physicians of the *present*, and whom I now have the great honor to introduce with his discourse on *The Family Physician of the Future*—Dr. Andrew H. Smith.













**298 RULES OF THE N. Y. STATE BOARD OF EXAMINERS.**

**SAMUEL R. MORROW, M.D., Examiner in Anatomy.**

**WILLIAM HAILES, JR., M.D., Examiner in Histology.**

**WILLIS G. TUCKER, M.D., Examiner in Chemistry.**



poor- or almshouse, or other receptacles provided for, and in which paupers are maintained and supported" ("Fifty-fifth Annual Report, State Asylum at Utica").

6. For the proper classification and treatment of the insane more means are required than for the patients of general or even other special hospitals. Institutions for the insane therefore demand medical experts as superintendents, nurses trained in the general care of the sick, and then in the special care of the insane, schools for the physical and intellectual training of the insane, for the practice of outdoor and indoor industries, and many other appliances.

7. The Medical Society of the State of New York expresses, therefore, its objections to any plan or law which in any way looks to the return of the insane to the county poor-houses, as being unscientific and inhumane, and expresses its conviction that those institutions which, like the State Asylum, have Boards of Managers accountable to the State Government and also to the public, are best adapted for the care of the insane poor of the State.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

A. JACOBI,  
C. R. AGNEW.





tual standing and humane instincts of the present authorities of Madison County.

The New York Academy of Medicine, the Neurological Society, the Medical Society of the County of New York, the Medical Society of the State of New York, in their meetings of 1888 and 1889, have therefore expressed their approval of the bill prepared by the State Charities Aid Association, which is now before both houses of the State Legislature. That bill provides that the indigent insane shall be cared for in State institutions, such care being the only one which can effectually lead to the fulfilment of the requirements of both science and humanity.

Therefore the New York Academy of Medicine begs to protest against the special bill (exempting Madison County from the general laws of the State) becoming a law of the land, and again recommends the bill introduced into the Legislature, on behalf of the State Charities Aid Association, to every well-meaning and humane legislator, and calls upon the medical profession of the State to enlist the sympathies of the people in favor of the indigent insane, and resolves to offer the opinions here stated to the consideration of the Legislature by a committee appointed for the purpose.

















over meetings addressed by Drs. Noyes, Wm. H. Draper, and A. H. Smith. To-night it is a great satisfaction to be able to present a gentleman of equal and unquestionable worth, on whom I have always looked as one of the most representative men in the best of professions; a specialist with thorough general information on medicine, a medical man with the ideals prompted by conscientious habit and scientific spirit, he is amongst those best fitted to speak on the unity of the profession and the means of effecting it. A professional man with the best instincts of the citizen, disproving the narrow impression that a professional man must needs keep aloof even from the discussion of public affairs or the turmoil of political life, he might well be called upon to deliver a discourse on the means of effecting the unity of all party interests, both in science and life. Whatever he will say on his chosen subject, whether in accordance with the preconceived ideas of every one of his listeners, no one doubts two things—namely, that he knows exactly what he is going to say, and will exactly say what he knows or believes to be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

Ladies and gentlemen, I have the honor of presenting the orator of the evening—Dr. D. B. St. John Roosa.





















mitted me to nominate him personally for the high office he is to occupy, I looked upon that opportunity as a joyful privilege. After I have enjoyed these four years the highest honor the profession can confer, and your unvaried and kind support in the pursuit of our common interests, I now express my appreciation of the same, and my sincere thanks in introducing your President — Dr. Alfred L. Loomis.



accomplished writer, would be out of place. Nor is it necessary to remind this audience of the fact of his having been called frequently, and at an early date, to assume duties of great responsibility.

In 1857, just three years after his arrival in this country, Dr. Jacobi was Lecturer on Infantile Pathology at the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and from 1860 to 1864 he was Professor of Diseases of Children in the New York Medical College, now extinct.

From 1864 to 1870 he held a professorship in the University Medical College, and from 1870 up to the present day pupils from all parts of the Continent have listened to his words as Clinical Professor of Diseases of Children at the College of Physicians and Surgeons.

In 1871 and 1872 he was President of the County Medical Society ; in 1882 he was President of the State Medical Society. The New York Academy of Medicine flourished as never before under his leadership of four years, and on many other occasions he has been one of the guiding minds in national and international gatherings of medical men.

In what other country would the most accomplished foreigner have received such recognition except in the United States, in which the medical fraternity is just as liberal as the country itself ?

I shall not attempt to outline the scientific attainments of Dr. Jacobi. He is among us in the prime of life, his work is not yet finished, and we all hope to see him carry his great knowledge and experience far into the beginning of the next century. Endowed with a wonderful and retentive memory and



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dem Backen der Microorganismen. Es wird behauptet, dass heisse Luft die Bacillen in der Lunge nicht allein unschädlich machen kann, sondern, dass das auch bestimmt geschähe. Besteht aber nur die leiseste Möglichkeit eines Erfolges durch solche Therapie, so kann die Akademie ihre Zeit kaum besser verwenden, als indem sie sich durch Untersuchung und klinische Beobachtung einen klaren Einblick in derartige Methoden zu verschaffen sucht. Theils in diesem Sinne bat ich für heute Abend um Ihr geneigtes Gehör ; theils aber bat ich aus persönlichen Gründen um Ihre Aufmerksamkeit, benöthigt durch die Nothwendigkeit individuellen Schutzes, welche in jeder parlamentarischen Körperschaft demjenigen das Wort ertheilt, der in seiner persönlichen Ehre und in seiner Würde verletzt wurde. Es handelt sich darum, dass seit ein gewisser patentirter Apparat zum Inhaliren heisser Luft bei Schwindsüchtigen in den Handel gebracht wurde, die Anzeigen und der Agent dieses Artikels vielfach hier und in anderen Staaten angegeben haben, dass ich den Apparat gekauft und rückhaltlos empfohlen habe. Viele an mich gerichtete Briefe beweisen diese Angabe. Deshalb möchte ich hier erklären, dass ich keinerlei patentirte medicinische und chirurgische Artikel und Apparate je empfohlen habe, noch je empfehlen werde. Wenn der in Rede stehende Apparat der einzige seiner Art wäre, der gewissen Indicationen entsprechen könnte und brauchbar zur Linderung oder Heilung von Krankheit, ich würde mir denselben zweifellos im Interesse meiner Kranken anschaffen, aber selbst dann würde ich denselben nicht "öffentlich empfehlen"



Bemerkungen gestatten Sie mir folgende Angaben zu machen: In den Nummern 36–38 der *Berliner klinischen Wochenschrift*, 1888 (September 3.–17.), veröffentlichte Dr. L. Halter eine Reihe von Beobachtungen über “die Immunität der Kalkofenarbeiter nebst therapeutischen Vorschlägen.” Die von diesem Autor gemachten Angaben sind sehr beachtenswerth und sein Apparat ist in obigem Blatt vom 17. September bildlich dargestellt. In der Provinz des Verfassers, Westphalen, ist die Tuberkulose sehr häufig anzutreffen. In den Kalköfen seiner Nachbarschaft waren fünfzig Personen angestellt, von welchen trotz der schweren Arbeit keine Einzige an Phthise erkrankte. Die Beobachtungsdauer erstreckte sich auf einen Zeitraum von fünfzehn Jahren.

Thatsächlich haben die Gegenden, welche als “immun” gelten, und wo Tuberkulose verhältnissmässig selten zur Beobachtung gelangt, nach August Hirsch (der grössten Autorität in der geographischen Pathologie) eine merklich trockene Atmosphäre. Die Luft vor den Kalköfen ist sehr trocken. Die Arbeiter verbringen dort einen grossen Theil ihrer Lebenszeit. Zugleich ist nun diese Luft sehr heiss, zwischen 50° und 70° Celsius (122°–158° Fahrenheit). Die Hitze bewerkstelligt, 1, dass diese Luft frei von Tuberkelbacillen ist, denn diese gehen nach Sormani durch einen einstündlichen Aufenthalt in einer Temperatur von 60°–65° Celsius (140°–149° F.) zu Grunde; 2, dass die Luft sehr verdünnt wird und so die Lunge, analog der Hochgebirgsluft, gründlich ventilirt wird.



würdig. Die Abbildung seines Apparates findet sich in der *Berliner klinischen Wochenschrift* vom 24. September 1888.

Feuchtigkeit als Zugabe mag sich als vortheilhaft erweisen. Wer sein mechanisches Talent bei der Erfindung neuer und billiger Apparate verwenden will, kann die Angabe Halter's beachtenswerth finden, welche er in einem Schreiben an obiges Journal vom 24. September machte, in der er bezweifelt, dass es ihm je gelungen sei die Expirationsluft auf 43° C. (110° F.) zu erwärmen; und bezweifelt er darin seine eigene diesbezügliche einzige Beobachtung. Er nimmt jedoch an, dass es leichter sei die Expirationsluft durch feuchtwarme Inhalationen auf einen Wärmepunkt zu erhitzen, welcher den Bacillen schädlich werden könnte. Er benützte feuchtwarme Inhalationen von 50°–100° C. (122°–212° F.), mit folgenden Resultaten :

Dauer.	Temperatur			
	der Inhalation.	der Expirationluft.	des Zimmers.	des Mundes.
15 Minuten.....	50°– 95° C.	42.0° C.	38.0° C.	37.4 C.
10 Minuten.....	50°– 90° C.	41.6° C.	37.5° C.	37.5 C.
16 Minuten.....	40°– 93° C.	41.8° C.	38.0° C.	37.5° C.
15 Minuten.....	50°–100 C.	42.0° C.	38.5 C.	37.5 C.
15 Minuten.....	50°–100° C.	42.1° C.	38.5° C.	37.5 C.

Die erste Mittheilung Dr. Louis Weigert's über seinen Apparat zur Einathmung heisser Luft erschien im *Medical Record*, December 15. 1888,

















gestandenen Zweck hat, für seine Behandlungsweise die "theoretische Grundlage" zu schaffen und dem Misstrauen, welches die Folge seines unmittelbaren "Appel's an das Publikum" gewesen ist und—bleiben wird, zu begegnen. Daneben theilt er "praktische Resultate" mit, für den Fall, dass es jenen "theoretischen Deduktionen hier und da an überzeugender Kraft noch fehlen sollte." Es ist billig anzuerkennen, dass Dr. Weigert "Lückenhaftigkeit und Mangelhaftigkeit" in seinen früheren Veröffentlichungen zugiebt, indessen zu bedauern, dass die marktschreierischen Behauptungen seiner für das Zeitungspublikum bestimmten Auslassungen nur den ärztlichen Kreisen gegenüber gemildert werden sollen. In der That, die Anzeigen des Apparates, welcher nach seiner Aussage und derjenigen seiner Agenten von "hundertten von Aerzten und in einer Reihe von Hospitälern"—darunter auch Bellevue—"gebraucht" werden, dauern natürlich fort, und das Patent wird weiter verwerthet. Es ist eine betäubende Thatsache, und spricht Bände für den niedrigen Stand ärztlichen Bewusstseins im alten deutschen Vaterlande, dass es dort möglich ist, ohne Verlust der ungeschriebenen Ehrenrechte in politischen Zeitungen zu annonciren, zu marktschreien und Prioritätsstreitigkeiten auszufechten. Der einzige Trost, welchen ich kürzlich in Betreff dieser Angelegenheit gefunden habe, liegt freilich in einer Stelle des Weigert'schen Bändchens selber, in welcher er sagt, dass "je intensiver der direkte Appell für eine Heilmethode an das Publikum zu gehen scheint, desto reservirter sich die Aerzte ihr gegenüber verhalten." So soll es



gen."

"Ich glaube auch, dass Kranke mit ausgedehnten zerfallenen oder zerfallenden Infiltrationen, Kranke bei denen kaum noch ein Lobulus frei von der Tuberkelinvasion ist, nicht mehr die Domäne für unsere Heilbestrebungen bilden können."

Seite 25. "Die Bekämpfung des Tuberkelbacillus hat vorzugsweise nicht an den Stellen des Lungengewebes zu geschehen, an denen es bereits zur Infiltration oder gar zum Vorfall gekommen ist, sondern an den Partien, in die er frisch verschleppt wird; mit anderen Worten: Die Sterilisation des Koch'schen Bacillus hat in den bis dahin intacten Theilen zu erfolgen."

Seite 26 spricht von dem "*Constanten Ergebniss*," dass die Tuberkelbacillen durch discontinuirliche Sterilisation vollständig abgetödtet werden. *Die eingehende Darlegung der betreffenden Versuche, deren minutiöse Schilderung mich an dieser Stelle zu weit führen würde, werde ich binnen Kurzem an geeignetem Orte veröffentlichen.*

Und warum nicht hier, Herr Redacteur? Hierbei dieser ersten und besten Gelegenheit? Zum ersten Mal wendet sich der Verfasser, nachdem er früher sich als unfehlbarer Schwindsuchtsdokter von den Zeitungen hat puffen lassen, und als gesetzlich geschützter Apparatbesitzer, Geschäftsmann und Agentenoberst sein "Business" in Gang

gebracht hat, an die ärztliche Welt, um "theoretische Grundlagen" zu schaffen, und vertröstet dieselbe wieder auf unbestimmte spätere Gelegenheit mit dem Beweise den er postulirt und gewissenhaft —schuldig bleibt. Wer da will, kann in nächster Zeit die täglichen Zeitungen von mächtigen Citaten aus der grossen wissenschaftlichen Arbeit des berühmten Herrn Verfassers, welche ich Ihnen hier habe charakterisiren wollen, überfliessen sehen. Wird das Ding nie aufhören geduldet zu werden?

Achtungsvoll der Ihrige,

A. JACOBI.







purposes are accomplished by lectures and discussions in the stated meetings of the Academy and its numerous sections; by maintaining reading rooms which furnish nearly all the medical journals of the world; and by collecting a library containing about sixty thousand books and pamphlets, which are free both to the medical profession and the public." The number of its Fellows is nearly six hundred. They have been selected from among those who have practised medicine in New York City or its vicinity three or more years. Some time ago fellowship was extended to those residing in the State.

In its composition the Academy participates in many of the peculiar features of our political organization, which means to benefit all through co-operation, if not of all, still of the best. In Europe an academy of medicine means a small body comprising a few select men only, appointed by the body itself when there is a vacancy, or by the political rulers. Thus the academies form an aristocracy of the mind parallel to the aristocracy of birth, with all its exclusiveness and real or assumed superiority. They are representative bodies only in this, that the best minds and most scientific workers are expected or believed to fill the seats.

The New York Academy of Medicine, however, is a democratic institution. It is not limited in numbers; on the contrary, it is desirable that the many respectable physicians should gather round its flag. Like our political commonwealth, it must look for its development and success in the co-operation of the competent and cultured masses. Like the Union, it is a voluntary confederation of peers,



fulfilling of their dreams and the reaching of their aims through coming years of honest labor spent in theoretical study and practical work. In this co-operation of the old and young, the illustrious and those yet unknown but promising or anxious to earn renown, the mature and the maturing, you have one of the features of a unity of the profession.

Another feature of unity, which, moreover, ties the profession indissolubly to the community at large, is the labor performed in the service of one and all. It is in these labors and their results that the community at large ought to take a deep interest. Modern medicine is probably the greatest benefactor of mankind. The more medicine has been founded on the study of the exact sciences—chemistry, physics, and physiology, with mathematics—the more has its field of usefulness enlarged. The more theoretical it appeared to become, the more did it develop practical usefulness and dignity. Indeed, the dignity of a science or study rises with its ability of being utilized in the service of mankind. Now, the promotion of medical science and art does not mean merely the improvement in diagnosis and in the administration of drugs and remedies, but the discovery of the best means of placing the human being in the best possible condition. The labor of the physician is not exhausted by carrying you through a severe case of illness; he renders you the greater service, less remunerative to him though, of preventing you from falling sick.

The peculiar relations of the individual physician to his patient or the family entrusted to his care are



have been a pecuniary calamity amounting to the loss of a good many millions.

These are but a few examples of the value of medical services, both paid and unpaid ones, to the public. The health of the city is the foundation of its prosperity. Let epidemics prevail, and not only will your children die, your families be decimated, and the graveyards be filled with places where flowers and tears mingle, but your commerce will be drawn to other ports. It is due to increased knowledge and activity on the part of the profession, both official and unofficial, that, in spite of the unchanged severity of the epidemics and the rapidly increasing population of the city, the number of cases of diphtheria shows an absolute diminution.

Such, among many, are the services of the profession, not to speak of the gratuitous daily work of hundreds of medical men in the hospitals and dispensaries. Nobody can count or calculate, but everybody can appreciate how many lives are preserved, how many millions are saved for the poor and rich alike. From that point of view, a whole-souled, generous woman presented to the Academy twenty-five thousand dollars in recognition of the services to the public on the part of the profession, and in accordance with the esteem her husband held the profession in while he was alive. To this consideration we owe the bequest of seventy thousand dollars coming to us under the will of Mrs. Alexander Hosack, who had spent a large part of her valuable life with illustrious example of professional worth. It is the same thought that induced men and women with means, intelligence, and pub-





well informed or skilful. And the physician ? His practice is the application of knowledge acquired by hard brainwork spent on all the learning and practice which have been evolved out of the labor and efforts of thirty centuries. A learned doctor may happen to be an unsuccessful practitioner for more reasons than one ; but among those reasons erudition is not. An uninformed man is never a good practitioner ; under equal circumstances, the more learned man is the better man in practice. Practice and learning do not exclude each other ; on the contrary, the former depends on the latter. It ought not to suffice for your selection of a doctor that you met him at a bar, or a ball, or at a church meeting, or at whist, in a concert, or on a hotel piazza, or that he be well dressed, pleasant, and tells you he is your "friend" ; all these are fine opportunities and agreeable social and personal qualities which may also be considered when you are credibly informed that he burns midnight oil over medical literature, and that his professional brethren speak well of his abilities and achievements. And as far as medical friendships are concerned, your best friend is he who knows best how to protect you and your children and your parents from disease, and to cure them when they are sick.

The erudition we claim for the profession demands a large library of constant growth. A fund of \$100,000 will enable us to keep abreast with any similar institution. The library of the Surgeon-General's Office in Washington, which contains at present seventy thousand volumes and one hundred and thirty thousand pamphlets, is the result of in-











time is the largest in size and the greatest commercial power of the continent.

This library of the Academy of Medicine had a slow but steady growth. Thirty-three years ago, when I was admitted to membership, in the presence of the great and good men who then were the guiding stars of the profession, Alexander Stephens, Valentine Mott, Horace Green, Gurdon Buck, Edward Peaslee, Edward Delafield, John Francis, John Watson, Ernst Krackowizer, there was no library at all, not even a medical reading room, in the city. It took many years before the Journal Association was organized, which furnished, in a room fitted up for the purpose in 64 Madison avenue, the current medical journals. Other years elapsed until an amalgamation of the Journal Association and the Academy of Medicine, then in 12 West 31st street, was brought about. The accumulation of the annual volumes, and a valuable collection of American journals and other books presented by two Fellows, were the first stock of the library. The journals were paid for by an appropriation of the Academy, which, being small in the beginning, for many years amounted to from three to four thousand dollars annually. More could not be spared. Thus it was that we could not purchase new books. Occasionally a sum was raised by voluntary contributions for the purpose of buying the collection of a deceased member, certain publishers would present us with their publications, authors donate copies of their writings, Fellows and others give old and new books, and men interested in special branches of literature furnish a shelf-ful of special









necessary to retain it in just so many words among the written laws. In this tendency you can sustain the efforts of the profession. Insist upon this, that your physician be a gentleman and a scientist, and do something for that purpose yourself. For the State does not contribute to that end. The State is only society organized for certain purposes of co-operation and protection. But medical education, though ever so indispensable for the pursuit of health and happiness and the training of erudite and liberal physicians, has not been recognized among them. But you who do not say to the hungry, the cold, and the naked, "Be ye fed, be ye warmed, be ye clothed," without helping them to food, fire, or clothing, must not expect a profession that always works in the private and public interest of yourself and all those dear to you and yours, to be at once learned, erudite, and wise, and refuse aid in its efforts to perfect itself and benefit the commonwealth, aid by pecuniary support, by your social influence, and also some occasional gentle political pressure on our representatives in Albany.

Our greatest drawback has long been that we had no large class of learned medical men, such as study for study's sake, irrespectively of pecuniary gain. Our profession has always consisted of practitioners. The necessities of life have acted upon the medical fraternity as on the community at large, which knew but exceptionally of art, of music, of philosophical refinement as long as the country was still wrestling with the difficulties of the soil, the insufficiency of commerce, and the hamperings of poverty. Thus the immense majority of the medi-







ous, honorable, and modest work—but by work only.

This library of yours has started from small beginnings, like medicine itself. It comprehends the labors of thousands of workers assiduously employed through long centuries. That one of them could be missed is difficult to say. For the co-operation of the many, the gradual development of ideas, the slow changes in experience and doctrines, are of as much importance as the revolutionary and epoch-making labors of the greatest. For no single man can stand alone, a law to himself and others. Even genius is the child of its time. No Washington or Lincoln, no Hippocrates or Aristotle, no Virchow or Pasteur, or even Koch, none of these immortal ones is a world by himself, and an isolated, self-lit sun illuminating and warming the universe. Every one has been raised on the shoulders of his predecessors. By that knowledge it is that while hope and energy are aroused, patience is taught to the individual and the profession. For while life is short, science and art are unlimited and eternal. And the comparison of what you furnish yourself with the existing mass of accumulated knowledge inculcates modesty and enhances zealousness. Thus good citizens are made and model scientists. Besides, what to the pupil the information gathered from the lips of his master, that is for you the collective bequests of all centuries as represented in your library. Thus an intellectual kinship is formed between you the living, and the spirit of all eras of history. That is what the study of the history of medicine teaches us, which we have so long neglected.





nourishing your minds, you disconnect yourself from the embarrassments of trivial employment and deliver yourselves from the merely terrestrial. In that way idealism is nurtured, that no feeling and thinking man is to be without ; idealism, without which no nation can expect to live. When she lost it, even Hellas perished, though she had given birth to Solon, Pericles, Aristides, and Sophocles.

Let me suggest this reflection as a platform, my young colleagues. It is not a dream, but a reality, if you will make it so. By so doing, not only will you elevate your august science and the noblest of all callings, but you will also remain in constant and indissoluble intellectual and moral contact with the most cultured elements of society. If you do, this evening, which is both an anniversary and an inauguration, will prove a blessing for all future to both the profession and the community. Look upon this edifice not merely as a new and commodious building, but as the visible portal into a new epoch. If you do so, you will consecrate this solemn occasion as the Fourth of July of American Medicine.



dead ; amongst them Ernst Krackowizer, whose name must never disappear from your annals. There were also nurses.

Many changes have occurred since that far-off time. The shanty hospital has been turned, fairy-like, into a palace, poverty into riches ; and all this because the spirit of benevolence, which commenced by erecting the shanty, continued to live, and the tree planted by the Touros, Jos. Fatmans, and Nathans has borne and ripened its fruit. And inside the palace the services rendered to the sick are of a higher order, since the successful example of the Bellevue Training School stimulated the private enterprise of clear-sighted and noble-hearted women to establish the Mount Sinai Training School for Nurses.

In an address I delivered half a dozen years ago before one of your graduating classes and the public, I drew from memory a picture of the hospital and private nursing before the time of training schools. The comparison was not at all favorable to the past. Woman's nature at its best is always sympathetic, pure, and unselfish, but that part of the sex which turned to nursing as a business was, with some rare and excellent exceptions, far from belonging to the sympathetic, pure, and unselfish class. Still, the nursing of the sick in those times was, in principle, superior to that which preceded it.

In ancient Greece, when a poor man was taken sick, he found admission to, and nursing in, the house of a rich fellow-citizen. During the Crusades the nursing order of the Hospital Brothers was



by the census of Berlin in 1872, that two-thirds of all the women of that city had to provide for themselves, and that but one out of every four hundred and seven such women turned to nursing as a regular occupation. In facilitating the obtaining of sufficient knowledge and training you give a woman a profession by which to secure her independence, an occupation which will serve the sick, a position than which there are few—there ought to be none—more appreciated and more honored. At the same time you serve the community. Whoever has feared and grieved at the bedside of a dear one, old or young, or has been exhausted by constant care and physical work, and tormented by the evidence of his or her own insufficient knowledge or training, has appreciated long ago the services a trained nurse alone can render. I believe there is none amongst you in whose household a good trained nurse has not shed light and given confidence and rendered valuable services already. We physicians know the difference between the hospital and private nursing of former times and that of the present. We do not feel as if we could or ought to take the responsibility of a doubtful case without the aid of a trained nurse, and wonder how we could ever get along without her. It is not a matter of fashion, but of necessity. If it were a fashion only, surely the name of the greatest and most blessed woman in the history of womanhood might be Semiramis, or Lucretia, or Roland, or what not; but you do know that *that* name is Florence Nightingale.

Sickness and suffering are unsectarian. Human-



—I do not care which, so the end of this fair be attained. I was selected to tell you so.

When, however, I complacently informed a friend that I was to open this fair, I was bluntly told that I did not even know what a fair was, and certainly did not know how to open one. Becoming doubtful of my knowledge, I consulted Webster (I have the impression that is what books are made for, my own too). There I found that “fair” means “free from spots, specks, imperfection, or hindrance; cloudless, propitious, favorable, unencumbered; characterized by frankness, honesty, impartiality, candor.” You see I know all about your fair here; and that I know how to open one I must prove this very moment, for I have been told that my remarks must be brief. Besides, I am used to opening things—I have opened a great many things in my life: I have opened my eyes quite often, though sometimes I was glad to close them quickly; my heart sometimes, and found it quite unprofitable business mostly; opened accounts and was soon told I had overdrawn; college courses, and the doctors continue to increase to an incredible and uncomfortable degree, and the cry is still they come; hospitals and dispensaries, with such success that they have remained open ever since; I have opened champagne bottles, very successfully in most cases; and now I am called upon to crown my work by opening this fair.

I shall do so after having made a single remark. The young ladies who expect to have fun only are greatly mistaken. Their satisfaction must be in serious work. Most of them have spent all their









through the trained efforts of women educated for the purpose.

Thus, what has happened under our eyes, and partly under your hands, is a repetition of the uniform development of human affairs and events. Unless we measure the history of mankind by the duration of a presidential term or a score of years, we come to the conclusion that simplicity, coarseness, inadequateness, and individualism are being slowly substituted by complexity, refinement, appropriateness, and organized efforts. The latter alone have resulted in the realization of the modern wonders of industry, commerce, science, and art, and also in the attempts at rendering the existence of all human beings, rich and poor, well and sick, more enjoyable or bearable. They are mostly an achievement of modern culture. In fact, what the ancients wanted most was organization and co-operation in most branches of knowledge or activity. There was but one thing in which voluntary organization was perfect in its way- that was the organization in the interest of bestiality; when they had a war on their hands, they knew how to congregate and to destroy. Even then, however, that organization was but temporary: their very battles were apt to be single combats.

The men in those times were individually as wise, brave, pure, and eloquent as any in later centuries. Though we have a Washington, Franklin, Lincoln, Sherman, we have none to excel a Pericles, Aristides, or Cincinnatus and Aurelius Paulus. But the results of their labors were not lasting, and their political edifices broke down in relatively short







have widened and hearts warmed. The thanks of all those are due who can appreciate the task so successfully performed. I know the Directors will consider themselves amply paid if their expectations in reference to the usefulness of this new building be fulfilled.

Besides its destination as the Out-door Department of the Mount Sinai Hospital, it is to be the headquarters of the Training School for Nurses. Mrs. President, I had the great honor of addressing the first graduating class of your school, seven years ago, on May 12th, 1883. I trust that the difficulties, which must always be overcome in the founding of a new institution, appear slight when compared with your results, and that you have reason to look back to these years of honest and successful exertions with great satisfaction. One thing is certain, namely, that the pupils and graduates of the Training School have enjoyed constant opportunities to serve the institution while being served by it. Another thing is as certain, namely, that the Training School has supplied a want which was sorely felt. For it is just as certain that a modern hospital requires a number of co-ordinate component parts. Besides a public willing to pay and add its blessing, you want a good board of directors, effective administration and officers; you require also medical men, instruments, and other remedies. Besides, you require the best possible and most scrupulous and conscientious nursing, and that is what your school was meant to contribute to the performance of the common duties.

Seven years ago, after giving an outline of the













**386 ADDRESS AT TRAINING SCHOOL AND DISPENSARY.**

duties to perform. May that strong but modest feeling, may the enthusiasm for your vocation, the sympathy with the suffering, may the love of learning and of fulfilling the dictates of your conscience, never fail you, forevermore !



ärmeren Klassen, sind Pesthöhlen, Gemeenschäden für die Bewohner, und eine Gefahr für die ganze Stadt; die Zahl der Volksschulen ist ungenügend und ein Theil der bestehenden ungesund; unsere Polizei ist nicht immer der beste und annähernd ausreichende Schutz, und unsere Richter sind nicht immer ideal, weil manche von ihnen entschieden politische Augendiener und Parteiklepper sind.

Alle diese Uebelstände und Gefahren sind die Folgen der Gewohnheit, welche sich bei uns eingeschlichen hat, städtische und nationale oder staatliche Angelegenheiten miteinander zu verwechseln. Es ist vergessen worden, dass städtische Verwaltung und nationale Parteifragen nichts miteinander zu thun haben und dass die Sicherheit des Verkehrs in den Strassen, die Gesundheit in den Häusern, die Verwaltung der Krankenanstalten, der Unterricht der Jugend, die Besetzung der Stellen im Gesundheitsrath und die Fähigkeit und Redlichkeit des Richters mit der Frage, ob Demokrat, ob Republikaner, nicht gleichbedeutend sind. Bei uns ist es dahin gekommen, dass ein Richter, ein Schuldirektor, ein Kassenbeamter, ein Strassenkommissär nicht wegen seiner Fähigkeiten und Amtskennntnisse angestellt wird, sondern weil er für den jedesmaligen Präsidenten oder Gouverneur gestimmt, oder weil er—oder vielleicht gar nur ein einflussreicher Freund—in den Parteiversammlungen seines Distrikts die lauteste Stimme und die heftigsten Gestikulationen entwickelt hat.

Unter diesen Umständen hat sich die "People's Municipal League" das grosse Verdienst erworben, eine Anzahl Kandidaten für die vakant werdenden

städtischen Aemter auf Grund ihrer persönlichen Eigenschaften und Fähigkeiten, ohne Rücksicht auf ihre politische Parteistellung, dem Volke New York's zur Wahl zu empfehlen. Schon haben sich sogar einige Parteiorganisationen der Nothwendigkeit gefügt und, Verzicht leistend auf strikte Parteinominationen, die Kandidaten befürwortet, von denen man weiss, dass sie die Stadt im Interesse der Stadt ohne Nebenzwecke und politische Hintergedanken verwalten werden. Und unsere deutsch-amerikanischen Mitbürger, welche einer ehrlichen und von Parteilidenschaften befreiten Stadtverwaltung—gegenüber der Verschwendung der eingezahlten Steuern, den schmutzigen Strassen und gifthauchenden Kanälen, den ungenügenden und ungesunden Schulen und Wohnungen—den Vorzug geben, haben es in ihrer Hand, durch die Wahl der von der "People's Municipal League" vorgeschlagenen Kandidaten der Misswirthschaft und der Herrschaft politischer "Bosse" ein Ende zu machen.







classes : either they are *conu-jus* students, whom, being mere foreigners, they consent to matriculate even without the preliminary education rigorously insisted upon in their own young countrymen, or they are our young doctors who pass a few months or a year in European laboratories and clinics for the sake of special studies. It is these latter that are also the occasional participants in their national associations, where, nobody else being present, they are naturally considered the representatives of American medicine. Our best men travel little and talk less. Indeed, some of those who were most fit to represent us in the Congress kept in the rear, modest and retiring. Besides, the great opportunity America might have had to present to the view of the world whatever there is great and pro-

















gentlemanly members of the Berlin profession, who were bent on nothing so much as to render the sojourn of the foreign guests comfortable and pleasant. I must here mention the names of Virchow, Bergmann, Waldeyer, Gerhardt, Henoch, Martin, and Leyden, and his accomplished wife, the chairman of the Ladies' Committee, and could name a host of others. Many of us have found it impossible to respond at the same time to the requirements of actual congressional duties and the urgent demands of hospitable courtesy. In this, also, there is discomfort and loss for the individual member. But the matter has a very much more important aspect. An excess of social entertainments on one hand, and the accomplishment of the end for which the International Congress is convened on the other, are incompatible at a certain point. Too many feasts interfere with legitimate work. The expectation of a good time may—if I must not say it does—invite the attendance of many, of hundreds, perhaps of thousands, who would not go for the sake of work. On the other hand, those who have gone for the latter are liable to feel sorely disconcerted. Thus it has happened—at least this disappointment can be held in part responsible—that the national associations have suffered from the persistent absence of those who do not wish to lose great opportunities; and that all over America, Great Britain, France, Germany, and other countries there have been formed by dissatisfied men, who place scientific work over any distractions, be they ever so pleasant, special societies, the objects of all of which ought to have been accomplished in the sec-



the numbers will no longer be unwieldy and shapeless. Then the men looking for work, and for the men who work, will be eager to come and see and be seen, to teach and to be taught.

The unprecedented success of the American Congress of Physicians and Surgeons, the first meeting of which was held in Washington in September, 1888, tells its own tale and exhibits the proof of what I say. In my mind there is no doubt that its second meeting, in September, 1891, will be equally successful; its three days will be dedicated to work, and the official social entertainment limited to a plain subscription banquet. In that way neither the lawful work of the Congress nor private intercourse and hospitality are interfered with.

It may appear invidious to mention the co-operative services rendered by the members of the different nations represented in the various sections of the Congress. Still, as we generally have a good opinion of ourselves, we are not afraid of looking back at our own contributions to the scientific material that was furnished. When we do so we have to admit, however, that but a small percentage of our seven hundred participated in the general work. It is true there was one who got himself delivered of quintuplets; fortunately, he had no equals, and he was not, as a medical journal reported, "taken in earnest." Still, there were a number of papers, not compiled, but original. The Orthopædic Section was American to a great extent. The Neurological had a very fair representation from our country. The Gynæcological and Pædiatric Sections were not without American contribu-



who transfer other birds' eggs into their own nests. You found there is room in our great army for many men and many classes of men. You gathered encouragement from learning that even truly great men are still men and human ; and that some degree of greatness is within the grasp of any man, in town or village, who will work for it intelligently, bravely, and honorably. All this is what a congress will teach those who consent to learn.

There is another lesson that is taught by a congress : The separation into twenty sections proves the endless and diversified branching of the grand old tree of medical science. Their working under the same roof, however, and under the same administration ; their occasional combination for a common purpose ; their gathering in general meetings, and their listening to the same addresses, with the same interest and profit—all this, in spite of the fact that some of the twenty appear to be threatened with the danger of degenerating into mere handicraft, proclaim louder than steeple bells that medical science is "one and indivisible, now and forever."

The Congress has conveyed to me, like its predecessors in Copenhagen and London, a great lesson, and furnished an elevating spectacle. Imagine, those of you who have not been present, thousands of medical men from all parts of the world, and speaking a dozen different languages, not perhaps endowed with the same erudition or mental or moral power, but moved by the same instincts and interests, and assembling at the same call and for the same special purpose. The great and the lowly,









individual members of the profession, will be admitted on equal terms."

This notice was based on the contents of an official letter received from the Secretary-General, Dr. O. Lassar, dated February 28th, 1890, part of which reads as follows: "It would please us very much if our invitation were given publicity by your national committee, with your recommendations. We imagine that could be best accomplished by a request directed to all the large societies to participate in the Congress, either *in corpore* or by delegates." This letter, Mr. Editor, I shall take pleasure in submitting to you. Finally, I can assure you that a number of names contained in the official rolls of the central office had the word "delegate" added to them.

A. JACOBI, M.D.



specimen which has been shipped to Dr. A. Jacobi, No. 110 West 34th street, New York." In the Sunday edition of the *World*, a few hours afterward, a little article appeared which was based on the above cablegram.

In the following week I quietly began preparations for the reception of the distinguished foreigner, in arranging with Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden for our co-operation, in reserving a few rooms in the Mount Sinai Hospital, and bespeaking a number of patients in Dr. I. N. Heineman's service and some offered by professional friends.

On November 29th I received a letter from Prof. C. Gerhardt, dated November 18th, in which he refers to the lymph sent me by his good services, and the difficulties in obtaining it, and makes the remark that it must be in my possession at that date. I waited a day, then sent a letter to Mr. Van Cott, postmaster, in which I requested the speedy delivery of the package I expected, if it came by mail. A kind and sympathizing letter was received in reply. A friend went to the Collector of the Port on the same errand, and was assured of his friendly co-operation within the limits of the law. I cannot but express my appreciation and thanks to both officers. At the same time the express offices were searched, but no lymph found.

Yesterday, December 3d, I sent a cablegram to Dr. Einhorn, of No. 120 East 64th street, who is now in Berlin, which read as follows: "Ask Gerhardt immediately to what address, how, and when he sent the lymph." His answer was: "Gerhardt says only Koch sent." Again I inquired: "Then

ask Koch to what address, how, and when he sent." Answer by Einhorn this morning: "Koch answered, Sent Jacobi, New York." This being unsatisfactory again, I cabled this afternoon: "Learn what route or express, and when. Hurry." I have not received an answer as yet, and no lymph has made its appearance.

These are the facts of my attempts at, and ill success in, obtaining the coveted article. A few of them had to be communicated to the inquiring gentlemen of the press. They were but few, but I understand that a painfully elaborate literature has been evolved out of a few simple statements made from time to time.







Restrictions have gradually been found necessary and possible in regard to the ages of children to be employed, the number of working hours, the time of the day, the months of the year, and the character of the work ; and in many parts of the world an educational test is applied. All these are as praiseworthy as they have proved successful. But the tentative and empirical nature of all such legislation is perhaps shown by nothing better than by the fact that the agricultural labors of the very young have never been included in any of the many acts provided for the protection of childhood.

Legislation for the purpose of confining child labor within certain limits will be found parallel with the advancement of human and social culture in general. But to look upon the laboring children with merely a sympathetic eye and a warm heart does not cover the case at all. The question can be approached both with a sympathetic warm heart and from a calculating business point of view. In America the legislative interference with the old way of brutally abusing children was first launched against the manufacturers, to protect the young against the physical dangers resulting from premature and protracted work, confinement, bad air, and its consequences ; also deformities, losses of limbs and lives. But the study of the discussions of legislative bodies and of the numerous annual reports of factory inspectors of a dozen States of the Union, and the provinces of the Canadian Dominion, for the furnishing of which I am under the greatest obligations to these gentlemen, has taught me that the laws enacted, one by one, with progressive improvements in their tendencies and results, were less the



tions of America get drowned in ignorance? Our dangers at this very time are very great. We have to digest and amalgamate the seven millions of negroes, and as many more illiterate foreigners who found a haven on our shores, and help to develop onward their material resources. But while so doing the tornado of the immigration of the scum of Europe, the sunny South, the far Southeast, the mediæval East, is sweeping over our land. Our country gives them citizenship within five years. Many of us are afraid lest the conservative high-mindedness of the united republics will cause the victory of ignorant and uncouth hordes over an established civilization. Education is the only safeguard, but education requires time, and time that must not be spent in manufacturing establishments. Early child labor interferes with child education. That is why most American States have tried to defer the age at which labor in manufacturing establishments is permitted; that is why they insist upon compulsory schooling.

The Commission of the British Parliament appointed in 1875 to consolidate former Acts (those of June 22d, 1802, of July, 1819, of January, 1833, of 1864, 1867, 1874, and many others) reported in February, 1876. Its work resulted in "The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878." English legislation was imitated by Austria-Hungary in 1859, France in 1874, Switzerland in 1877, Germany in 1878. Of the English possessions the Presidency of Bombay enacted laws regulating factories and workshops up to 1882, the province of Ontario in 1884, and that of Quebec in 1885. Some of the United States took



as defective as that of Minnesota, and for the same reason. Only Section IV., referring to the "Powers and Duties of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics," speaks of the duty of the Commissioner to examine . . . "the employment of illegal child labor, the exaction of unlawful hours of labor from women and children. . . ."

But factory legislation referring to children does not always depend on external and material conditions, but sometimes on the state of public conscience and social culture, which are not always identical even in the older commonwealths, and perhaps even sometimes on mere thoughtless conservatism. Consequently the regulations and stipulations differ very much in different communities; many resemble the British, many are more advanced, and many lag behind.

Thus, for instance, Mr. James R. Brown, Inspector of the Central District of the Province of *Ontario*, Canada, finds fault (1890) with the legislation in force, and, referring to the State of Ohio, where nobody less than sixteen years old is allowed to engage in hazardous occupations, insists that fourteen years should be declared the minimum age for such employment. Mr. O. A. Roque, of the Eastern District, proposes sixteen years for the same purpose, and adds, in referring to another topic: "In my report of 1888 I stated that the inspectors would be considerably assisted in preventing the employment of young children in factories by the putting in force of the school law, compelling them to attend school, but up to this time I have observed that no such steps have been taken in any locality









school of the district the whole time it was kept open. None under fourteen, unless he have attended school six months. None under fifteen, more than ten hours per day, without written consent of parent or guardian. None under sixteen, unless he have attended school for twelve weeks during the preceding year, and no child under said age shall be employed (except in vacation time) who cannot write legibly and read fluently "in the readers of third grade."

The law of *Maryland* prohibits the employment of children under sixteen years of age in factories for more than ten hours per day, but has no limitation of age.

In *Rhode Island* no child under twelve years of age can be employed in any manufacturing establishment. None between twelve and fifteen more than eleven hours in any day, nor before 5 A.M., nor after 7:30 P.M. None under fifteen, unless he have attended school at least three months during the preceding year; and no such child shall be employed for more than nine months in any year.

In *Vermont* children under ten must not be employed at all; between ten and fifteen, not in mill or factory, unless they have received three months' schooling the preceding year; under fifteen, not more than ten hours per day.

The Child Labor Law of the State of *Maine* prohibits the employment of minors under twelve years of age, and fixes ten hours per day as the maximum length of time in which all children between the ages of twelve and fifteen are permitted to work. The "Fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of In-







the general condition, and particularly of the eyesight. Indeed, Section 6896 of the Revised Statutes of Ohio forbids the employment of children under 18 years for a longer period than ten hours per day or sixty per week, but it matters not when this employment takes place, whether during the day or night. This compares unfavorably with New York and Massachusetts, both of which forbid the employment of children under eighteen and of women after 9 P.M.

Still, on the 8th day of April the General Assembly of the State of Ohio passed an act to prevent the engagement of children in such employment whereby their lives and limbs might be en-









So-called impossibilities have disappeared suddenly, when least expected. Mankind will sometimes adjust long-continued grievances, which appeared to be as firmly settled as the rocks, in sudden explosions. That solemn August night, a hundred years ago, which did away with feudal and class privileges and prejudices in France, and the outbreak of a civil war to wipe the spot of human slavery from the face of the United States, prove the possible proximity of the unexpected, and the perfectibility of the race.

Thus we have reason to hope that child labor will be more and more limited and finally disappear. No hard labor ought to be expected of the individual as long as he is not fully developed. Nor is it required. As early as 1876 the Royal Commission appointed in 1875 reported as follows: "We have no reason to believe that the legislation which has been productive of such marked benefit to the operatives employed has caused any serious loss to the industries to which it has been applied. On the contrary, the progress of manufacture has apparently been entirely unimpeded by the Factory Acts; and there are but few, even amongst the employers, who would now wish to repeal the main provisions of the Acts, or would deny the benefit which has resulted from them."

I do not care to discount the distant future, when those able to work will by common consent be compelled to contribute their share to the required production of material and intellectual goods; when the working power of millions of able-bodied men will no longer be spent on the gorgeous display of



*Committee."*





aux médecins célèbres de la capitale de la plus grande république de l'Europe, et ajoutent la promesse, tant qu'il est dans leur pouvoir, de leur coopération dans le service d'une république encore plus sacrée, encore plus éternelle que chacune d'elles —la république cosmopolitaine de la science.

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- **It is becoming that we Americans should celebrate this day. For Virchow has worked persistently, unselfishly, gloriously—never for himself—always in the common interest of all mankind. Thus we pay homage, not to a stranger, but to one of ourselves.**

















of the calamities averted, both from individuals and the communities, by the execution of such a plan, will so impress a wealthy fellow-citizen as to induce him or her to make the experiment with a hundred or two hundred beds. The secular press, which for years has been so anxious to open its columns to the discussion of matters of hygiene and public health, can find no subject more conducive to the public welfare than this. For the subject is no longer one of theoretical meditation, but one of practical citizen- and statesmanship.

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After the reading of the report the following resolution was unanimously adopted :

Therefore your Committee on Hygiene begs to move that the Medical Society of the City of New York pass a resolution urging the increase of special hospitals for diphtheria and scarlatina, and expressing its conviction that there is no better protection against the multiplication of contagious diseases over the whole city than by providing temporary homes for the numerous children gathered around a nest of pestilence, from which there is no escape except in flight.













The former are but nominally different from the latter. Education is but the shaping of the brain by impressions, the consequences of which are physical, no matter whether they are permanent or transitory. When the former, they impress even the features of the face ; deep must be the delineations in the nervous centre which are permanently photographed outside. Thus there are educational crimes like social crimes. The formation of the earliest habits is the determination of the character of the man. The dime novel, which spoils the taste and fires the imagination, is as certainly a source of infection as the exhalation of a sewer. Paul Aubry wrote in 1888 on the contagiousness of murder. With him the great factors in inducing it are heredity and degeneration. The latter, according to him, depends largely on education—in its widest sense. He charges the public press with producing crimes by its constant sensational reports which excite the imagination and lead to imitation by the persistent parading of an example. Thus are brought about the acts of cruelty during political upheavals, such as remind one more of insanity than of mere barbarism. His prophylaxis is based upon the same opinions. The prevention of the contagiousness of murder consists in a sound moral, individual hygiene, in the moralization of habits and customs, in proper regulations of the press reports, and in a more logical severity of the courts of justice.

Many of the physical changes which lead, or can lead, to criminality are preventable. The servant girl who lets a baby fall may maim it for life, or





















in 1872, one thousand extra copies were ordered printed and distributed, and the Committee was, on motion, continued for another year.—SECRETARY.]







every rose between Shiras and the tiny garden plot of your little daughter ; so is every leaf of all the countless oaks or palm trees of the globe. There is no rose, however, no leaf, that has exactly its equal. So it is with man, with every race of man ; it has a certain type, but no two individuals of the same type are identities. In his structure man comprehends a number of different organs. Every one has two kidneys, a liver, a spleen, five lobes of lungs, a heart : no single one of these organs but has its peculiarities which distinguish it from that of other men. In every teaspoonful of your blood there are two thousand millions of blood cells ; in your ten or twelve pounds of blood you possess almost incalculable billions. No two men have the same number. Fifteen hundred millions of men, women, and children have each a skull and a brain ; not one of them is, or looks, like the other. Here is your second important axiom—viz., that Nature, while evolving her creatures upon a common plan, permits of great latitude within the boundaries of normality.

What now is, with all this variability, the underlying equality—particularly as to the human brain ? And which are the requisites that establish its normality ?

*First.* There must have been ample building material in its embryonic and foetal period.

*Second.* No arrest must have disturbed its development.

*Third.* It must not have suffered from a disease, either before or after birth, which terminated in persistent changes.









hol not by some. Irritable heart, neuralgic headache, dizziness, fainting spells, convulsions, partial paralyses, are frequent occurrences.

Many of these anomalies, however, are met with among non-criminals. Still, when there are many of the kind in the same individual, we must not forget their connection with, and dependence on, the condition of the nerve centres. Face and head, their structure and expressions, are under the influence of the brain, even in the adult; physiognomic doctrines have a certain sound basis in these facts.

The direct causes of cerebral changes are either structural and primary, or such secondary alterations of its form and function as are produced by the effects of distant nerves or complexes of nerves. I must not, however, weary you with facts which may appear to you to belong to the sphere of the medical man only—though, indeed, whoever has brain himself may well desire to know its structure and its dangers—but my theme demands that I should at least mention the principal causes of alterations of the brain and of its functions. So I refer to injuries; to inflammations and hæmorrhages; to tumors, solid and cystic, the latter resulting from hæmorrhages or from the invasion of certain worms; to abscesses; to diseases of the blood vessels; to certain nerve diseases of a severe type, such as hypochondria, epilepsy, St. Vitus' dance, and hysteria; to affections of the senses which result in hallucinations; to changes in the nerves of the surface which result in insupportable, maddening itching; to the diseases of the intestinal tract

























ing either on an arrest of development or on inflammations, are quite frequent ; thus also that the right side of the foetal heart, which has the principal work to do before birth, is mostly affected, while in the adult most diseases of the heart are found on the left. The brain, while growing rapidly, and because of this, is the subject of many inflammatory diseases. They either lead to changes in its substance or to its partial destruction. Thus it is that many a baby is born that looks absolutely normal, while inside there is an absence of perhaps the most important parts. Between the absence of part or parts of the organs and their perfect formation, however, there are ever so many stages and forms of development. As there are varieties of height and looks and faculties in the adult, so there are thousands of varieties of brain evolution, some more normal, some more abnormal, all with their varieties of functions, intellectual, moral, and emotional.

Not in all cases does the foetal brain work out its future shape and destiny all by itself in its cranial capsule. In many, particularly those in which the abnormal growth begins at a very early period, the defective evolution is also perceptible in the skull. Brain and skull grow simultaneously. When the former remained small, or when, what is more common, the large hemispheres are but slightly developed, the skull adapts itself to the brain. It is quite common that in such cases the bone is quite thin, evidently because there was a scantiness of building material all around, like a house with thin walls and incomplete interior. The result can easily





runs its full course. No congenital chronic thickening of the brain membranes, no fixed changes in the brain substance, unless it be syphilitic perhaps, have ever been cured. Thus it is easily understood why there is that legion of absolutely hopeless, or sickly, or incompetent, or irresponsible beings amongst us. They were tainted and doomed six months before they saw the light.

Thus becomes evident what I said, that the path of man is strewn with dangers before he is born. You will see also that it is not necessary to resort to maternal impressions as the cause of physical, intellectual, and moral anomalies in the offspring; that theory may safely be left to the nurses and poets.

The dangers to the body and mind incurred through and during the process of birth are also many. The very means to save mother and child may become a danger to the latter. The application of the obstetrical forceps—one of the most beneficent instruments invented in the service of mankind—is a frequent cause of lasting injury. The blood vessels of the foetus and infant are very thin and rupture easily; more frequent than hæmorrhages outside the cranium are those inside; slight traction or pressure is sufficient to burst a blood vessel, with the result of a persistent injury to the functions of the brain; thus are brought about paralysis, mostly of one side, and incompetency of the intellectual faculties. Thus the very means of saving the new life may, under unfavorable circumstances or in clumsy hands, be the cause of rendering it a burden to itself, its parents, and the community.



tions and callings: mental aberrations are frequently met with amongst brain workers, from over-irritation; lead workers, from poisoning; prisoners, from remorse, dreams, unsanitary surroundings, and such hereditary tendency as landed them in the prison walls; prostitutes, from exposure, syphilis, and mostly from alcohol.

Strong predisposition is created by mental contagion. They call it suggestion nowadays. As a single case of hysterical convulsions in a female hospital ward may provoke hysterical convulsions in all or most of the inmates, so in a single family, where surroundings and influences are the same, different or like forms of insanity make their appearance in two or three members of the family at the same time. The epidemics of insanity and murderousness of whole populations—the persecutions of the Christians, of the Jews, of witches—are of that nature.

A few years ago (1888) Paul Aubry wrote on the contagiousness of murder. With him the great causative factors are heredity and degeneration. The latter, according to him, depends largely on education in its widest sense. He charges the public press with producing crimes by its constant sensational reports of murders and other crimes, which excite the imagination and, by the persistent parading of an example, lead to imitation. Thus are brought about not only individual murders immediately after the committal of a single murder or after the decapitation of a criminal, but also the acts of cruelty during political revolutions, such as remind one more of absolute insanity than of mere







between the membranes or between the membranes and the brain ; chronic induration of the tissue from inflammation, obstruction of blood vessels, changes in the blood vessels or in the brain substance itself, of syphilitic origin, are often found. Our old acquaintance, and new scourge, influenza, yields a number of cases of mild or severe aberration of the mind, from mild melancholia and debility to violent attacks of maniacal fury. Thus we exhibit the brutality of punishing the chronic results of typhoid fever, of previous sunstroke, of heart disease, of vascular changes, of influenza. And we call ourselves children of the nineteenth century, good citizens, Christians, humanitarians, philosophers, and what not.

Physical derangements of distant organs are frequently predisposing causes. The ill-humor and intractable temperament of dyspeptic and costive people are proverbial. Why is it that indigestion and ill-humor are closely connected, though there be no irritating pain ? Because gastric disturbance diminishes the introduction into the system of nutrient material, and deprives the brain of its normal amount of food and healthy stimulus ; because it generates gas in the stomach, prevents the normal movements of the diaphragm, and thereby hampers both heart and lungs ; and because it irritates the ramifications of the pneumogastric nerve, which through other branches controls the heart and its functions. A full meal on a healthy stomach renders its possessor more genial, generous, and humane ; a full meal or one hastily swallowed into a dyspeptic organ makes its tenant peevish and morose, and adds another









Thirty years ago I attended a baby boy for tubercular meningitis. He was one of the few cases I have ever known not to die of the dread disease. In his family there was no instance of either tuberculosis or nerve disorder. Some years afterward, however, a girl was born who developed mild epilepsy when growing up. The boy was apparently healthy in after-years. At school, however, he proved an incompetent scholar, besides being obstinate and occasionally violent. With these traits of character and mind, obstreperousness, laziness, and wilfulness, he grew up, neglected studies and business, behaved quietly enough at times, became now and then violent, and sometimes maliciously so, in the public thoroughfare, and was considered queer and incalculable by his family and friends. My advice to treat him as insane was not heeded, though it was readily admitted that the brain disorder of his early infancy was the cause of his waywardness. The suggestion to confine him in an insane hospital was received with derision and considered an affront. If at those times he had committed a murder, I dare say that the plea of insanity would have been welcome to his attorney, but a jury would hardly have been found willing to accept it. Meanwhile he lived with his family or amongst strangers. One summer afternoon, when in the country, he suddenly seized a heavy missile, after having threatened several times to kill his brother, and, firing it at him, barely missed his head. If the intended victim had been a stranger and been killed, the decision whether the murderer was to go to the lunatic asylum or to the gallows



insane institutions. One was certain the man was insane and irresponsible, the other—a man of ripe years and great experience among ever so many thousands of insane—insisted upon absolute sanity and responsibility on the part of the prisoner. The court sided with the latter testimony, and the man was sent to the State prison ; not for a long time, however, for he had to be transferred to the insane hospital as a hopeless case before many months had elapsed.

You all remember the case of a medical man who, after poisoning a man, killing his wife, stealing a will, forging another in the interest of himself, committed suicide in his cell. Here was a murderer, plain and simple, a murderer for the sake of personal gain, who moreover appeared to prove his guilt by committing suicide. Would any jury in the land have thought differently, and was there a possibility of his escaping the gallows ? I think not, and thousands were grieved when they heard of his self-inflicted death and his escape from proper punishment. There may be many here who shared that opinion and grief. A post-mortem examination was made by some of the most competent and most honorable medical men of the country. Dr. H. M. Lyman, of Chicago, reports in his name and that of others : " At different points the membranes that cover the top of the brain contained patches of inflammatory thickening and exudation. There was adhesion of these membranes to the cortex of the brain. These patches were places where the membranes were thickened so they looked as though they were coarse patches sewed on or fastened on



hysteria, epilepsy, diabetes, or so-called eccentricity. Morel could prove nervous disorders of different types in four successive generations. The first had an ethical defect in the form of inebriety, the second exhibits mania and "*folie de grandeur*," the third mania with murder and suicide, the last idiocy and, happily, extinction of the family. Hereditary influences are liable to show their effects at a very early time of life and on slight provocation, particularly when the education and training of the individual could not, or would not, control the irascibility, peevishness, or maliciousness of the inherited temperament.

In closing my remarks permit me to thank you for your patience and forbearance, for I could not be better than my word. I gave but fragmentary notes on a subject which is as vital as it is vast. Finally, permit me to repeat a few points in the shape of a summary.

The function of an organ depends on its structure and composition, the changes of functions on changes in structure.

The intellect, reasoning power, judgment, and will power are located in and dependent on the condition of the large hemispheres of the brain. They do not exist when there are no hemispheres, are defective when the organ is insufficiently developed, and are apt to be morbid when the hemispheres are diseased.

The anomalies of the hemispheres are either arrests of development or acquired alterations. The first are all prenatal; the latter are either contracted before birth, or during birth, or during life.













prominently mentioned, together with Johns Hopkins, Ann Arbor, and, I am proud to say, my own Columbia. [Applause.]

But, while praising the schools for their zeal and success in that line, I must not forget to credit the profession at large with being the most persistent worker in the field of progress. Our very schools, with few exceptions, were the result of private enterprise—an enterprise not always, originally, in the interest of individual self-aggrandizement, but often founded on the appreciation of the necessity of systematic teaching. Now, when finally the schools, or many of them, were slow in keeping up with the progress of science in teaching, it was again the profession at large which insisted upon improved methods and the addition of new branches to the curriculum. New chairs were endowed by alumni, and the democratic spirit of the institutions of the country was often reflected in the unselfish and progressive action of the scientific masses. Again it was the profession at large which year after year appealed to the legislatures of many of the States for the purpose of exacting State examinations after college graduation, and insisted upon a certain degree of preliminary education before matriculation. The persistent and self-sacrificing action of the profession is the more meritorious the more it became known that many of the colleges, some of which were until then highly esteemed by the profession, were bitterly opposed to every movement in favor of raising the standard of matriculants, and of introducing improved methods of teaching or causing legislative enactments



Latin: other medical colleges, a common-school education, whatever that may mean [laughter]; some, none at all. Such was the case formerly in most of the schools. New York State has passed a law requiring a moderate, a very moderate, amount of general knowledge, without which a medical student must not be granted a medical diploma. Now, it appears to me reprehensible that any student should ever be permitted to pass a preliminary examination at any other time than *before* matriculation. If he cannot then pass it, he has not attained the lowest possible degree of mental culture and habit of application demanded in a medical student. [Applause.] Besides, his college years belong to his medical, not to his preparatory, studies.

All those who have the elevation of the medical profession, through improved medical education, at heart, are also agreed upon lengthening the lecture courses, and an increase of the years of study; also, an extension of clinical instruction, not only as it is now, but in hospital wards, where the diseases are best studied, and in private practice among the poor, where, under competent guides, the necessities of a case are most easily learned, together with the means of doing the most possible good with the least possible facilities. Gradually, during decades of first tentative, afterward systematic attempts, clinical instruction has obtained its full recognition. When I established the first American children's clinic in 1860 it was looked upon as an innovation. To-day there is hardly a medical college in the land but claims to teach diseases of





your Harvard courses to the wants and demands of the superior intellects and the social habits of that "nation." [Laughter and applause.]

You are, when you consider the question of medical education, no longer advisers of the individual. We are, as a profession and a teaching body, responsible for the condition of things medical and hygienic which concern the State, the people at large, and mankind. We have no longer even to deal with the people of Boston or New York or Oshkosh, or any part of them. The most precious goods of mankind, of all classes, ages, sexes, are in our keeping. We are also responsible, all of us who teach, all of us who practise, to those who learn, to those who practise with us, and to those who will succeed us. The best of us is not too good for the present and future profession, and the best we can give is but what they have a right to demand. [Applause.]

"The social habits of the people." That would mean they must be served according to their own expectations, misguided by the accumulated ignorance of generations. [Laughter.] If it be sug-



connects us most intimately with the public at large, and with its individual and social crises and diseases. In all probability special topics of hygiene would also be treated both in lectures and in the laboratory.

In the present condition both of medicine and of society these subjects cannot be missed; for the demands on the intellectual faculties, knowledge, and services of the physician are steadily growing. In the last century an erudite physician could at the same time be a learned philologist, or a medical professor would hold the chairs, for instance, of pathology and botany at the same time. Medicine was simpler then. The many component factors of modern medicine cannot possibly be gathered and







the many people belonging to other professions who are taken in by medical sectarianism and downright quackery.

Why, now, do I insist upon a medical education which must appear, and must be, inaccessible to many? For the reason that the required public medical work can be done by a smaller number of men, and there is no ground for lowering the standard in behalf of those who must always be and remain inferior. For science must not be a milch cow. Medicine is no business: its practice is a vocation requiring ample brains and no narrow hearts. For the reason that in your classes of medical students you speak and teach above the

heads of the less gifted, less prepared, and less industrious. The ideal standard of education must be measured by the capability of the best, not the worst. The perfectibility of the race, of science, and of the profession, and your own individual pride as teachers, go hand-in-hand. What appears impossible and utopian to-day may not be so in ten years or in fifty. Everything changes rapidly. Your very poorest graduate is familiar with many subjects no Boerhaave, no Hunter, no Bichat ever dreamed of ; and in twenty-five years perhaps many of you, and all of your sons, will smile at the feeble inroads of to-day into the knowledge of modern etiological factors and, we hope, of preventive and curative therapeutics, which, after all, is the aim and crowning glory of all medical science. [Applause.]







tion respecting the New York Juvenile Asylum." To it I have the honor of referring you. The best feature of its teachings is this: that the children are not treated, as far as possible, according to iron-clad rules. Account is taken of their individualities. Even the regulation that a child must remain in the Juvenile Asylum two years before being placed out, in order to purify him of the spots and crookednesses of his existence, is often modified. Even the methods of placing out those who do not return to their homes in New York are variable. Those who are so placed out are one-fourth part of all who have been admitted.

Comparing the reports and papers contained in the fourth volume of the Transactions of the Seventh International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, held at London in 1891, I find that the system followed in Great Britain with regard to truants and juvenile offenders of all kinds is not at all like that described by Mr. Carpenter. It is for that reason that the results can hardly be the same, though the same end be aimed at. In 1891 they had in England 19 truant schools and 55 reform and 141 industrial schools. The former had 3,276 inmates in 1859 and 5,854 in 1890; the latter, 2,462 in 1866 and 22,735 in 1890. The truant schools received their inmates for a period of from a few weeks to the end of the sixteenth year. They were sometimes discharged; when relapses were reported, the parents were given reminders. When they proved ineffective, the children were taken away to an industrial school. The proper attachment to it was enforced in the beginning by a few days of solitary



vicious, having become so by heredity, by acquired physical and psychical defects or diseases, and by the bad examples of the street or home, require strict watching through many years. Indeed, there are creatures so abnormal that they are, and always will be, a constant danger to society ; the time will come when society will, before harm is done by the irrepressible criminal instinct, take charge of such forever, in the interest as well of society as of the faulty individual. This class of inmates Victor Desguin (pages 175-186) wishes to gather in agricultural colonies. There can be no doubt in my mind that, if ever there be a possibility of reclaiming this class of delinquents, no placing out in families only, but strict supervision in an institution of some kind or other is demanded. In every case, however, there are great difficulties. I believe that great superintendents are as scarce as great rulers of nations. A superintendent—as also some of his aids—must be a healthy man in body and soul, active, firm, patient, and self-sacrificing. That is why the experience of a single institution is not conclusive. For while the principles laid down may be the same for all of them, their realization depends on a single man, who may be either ideally competent or fail in his purposes altogether. For be he ever so competent personally, his results depend to the greatest extent on his help. Subordinates are liable to be the reverse of angels. Whoever, for instance, has but watched the promenades of orphan schools and similar institutions, the children perhaps well clad, walking in exemplary order, and attended by adults, mostly females, must have occasionally noticed, as



The influence of the children, however, upon each other may prove a still more serious danger. If they be kept many years, you have them younger and older, weak and strong, vicious and good. They will learn from each other—bad qualities are more contagious than good ones; indeed, those evil inclined have always a greater influence than those who are well disposed. The latter are more liable to submit to the aggressive boastfulness of those morally inferior. The contagion of vice is greater in all ages than that of virtue. The latter is more negative and unobtrusive. Bad examples, smutty words, loose habits—sexual degeneration being very common in large schools and institutions—create a bad atmosphere. There is a moral atmosphere, as there is a meteorological one. The influence of a bad heart and bad habits is a psychical malaria from which everybody suffers who is within its reach, producing a general deterioration. Though there be no marked criminality, a moderate number of cases with slight moral ailments will spoil the average. A sick-ward with a single typhoid case may not be endangered: if you accumulate more cases the disease will spread. It is distribution and dissemination that give safety. Thus it is that the general health of a community is thoroughly vitiated by the aggregation of many instances of physical or moral sickness, though the single cases be but mild.

There is another consideration. The institutions are large edifices, no longer houses or shanties. They are big, comparatively luxurious, equipped with much comfort. The meals are always ready









There is another point of difference between me and some of those who have expressed the opinion that the number of dependent children in charge of the city (I will add the State, or society) is too large. I urge my point with much hesitation, as I have to dissent even from the lecturer on "Dependent Children in New York," who appeared before you day before yesterday, and whose opinions I have learned to esteem very highly these many years of her searching, fearless, and beneficent labors, both in private and public capacities, in the service of unhappy childhood. What I believe and urge is that the city takes care of *too few* children, instead of too many. First of all, no statistician can ever tell how many cases of waywardness, irregular habits, and criminal propensities and wrong actions on the part of the children are to be laid at the door of the city. It is not long ago that nearly twenty thousand children, more or less, found no place in the public schools. This very day there is no room for school children who seek admission. Thus, much of what we complain of, and what you try to remedy by other measures, is an artefact of our own making. Secondly, we have a large class of people amongst our immigrant population who are unfit to raise their children so as to become valuable citizens. If many of them could be deprived of their offspring it would be a blessing, both for the latter and the community of which they are some day to become members. Meanwhile they grow up in ignorance and, consecutively, vice. But that cannot be done under our laws. Still, many of the inmates of our institutions are



aid in feeding vice with all its appurtenances and dangers, furnish the bulk of the money you eagerly receive for your institutions !

The city and State require sober, industrious, and fairly informed citizens. The neglected population can become so only when taken by the hand early. The larger the number you save from the streets, dens, brutality, and bad example, the better. Let your class of dependent children be as large as possible. It is large, and is growing. There will never be a stigma attached to those whom the community protects, to save them and itself at the same time. That is the problem, as it must be the programme, of the present and the future. By performing this duty toward ourselves—call it humanitarian, politic, socialistic, what you please—and by accepting the watchword of socialism, love and solidarity, we shall, for we have to deal with multitudes, escape political deterioration and anarchy.

Have we the means ? We have ample funds for police and prisons, for capitols, court houses, and cathedrals, for speedways, docks, and asphaltum; we can certainly, if we wish, build school houses for our children, and institutions for the indigent, and can afford to elaborate plans and raise the funds for the improvement of neglected childhood, not only in their interest but that of the community

and ourselves: indeed, a slight change of the verse of the New Testament covers it all: What you do unto the lowliest of them, you do unto yourselves.















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